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WITHDRAWAL

The Development of State Control of Public Instruc- tion in Michigan

By

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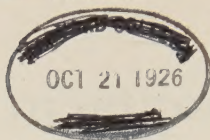


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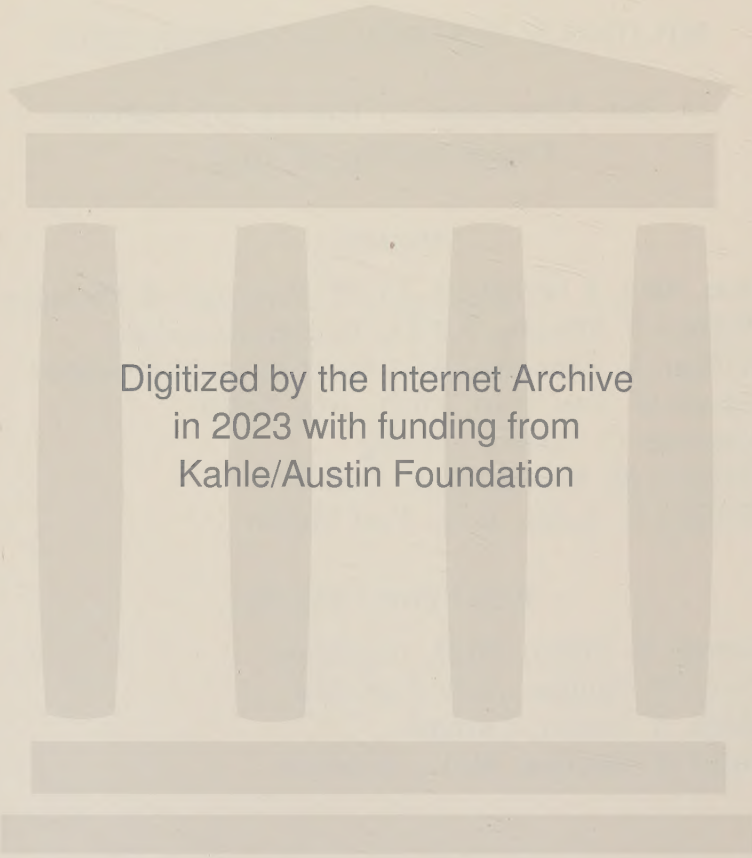
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FOREWORD

Educational history always has been and always will be of paramount value if for no other reason than the fact that it records the efforts of the varying degrees of success achieved by experimentors in this field. The successes show the fields for future exploration while the failures very often definitely post signs guarding the unwary from any further waste of energy in that direction. For this reason the history of education would seem to be a fundamental requisite in the work of the student in educational research.

Michigan has had an interesting educational history. It was a pioneer in several fields, for example—a State University, an Agricultural College, a state supported Normal School, and a Constitutional Department of Public Instruction. People of Michigan have had an abiding faith in the value of education. They have always been ready to sacrifice that their children might be better equipped for the problems which they would have to solve to secure a reasonable success in life. The story of this development is not only intensely interesting but it is also very constructive.

Michigan is more or less an isolated state because of its geographical boundaries. It has drawn its population from many sources and consequently has had many forces operating in the shaping of its culture and its ideals. Today we find communities strictly New England in character, and not far removed from these we

can locate settlements where German, Polish, Finnish, Italian and many other cultures as widely separated as these have been preserved almost intact. The fusing of these various influences, particularly in the educational field, forms an interesting chapter in the history of the American melting pot.

A field also valuable is the story of the slow growth and centralization of power in educational matters. Begun on a basis of local control in the small district system, borrowed from New England, Michigan has gradually changed her plan and seems now about to be wedded to a policy of state control. For these and many other reasons this History of Michigan Education must be of great value not only to the professional but also to the lay reader.

Thomas E. Johnson

State Sup't Public Instruction.

Lansing, March 30, 1926

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CHAPTER I

EDUCATION IN THE TERRITORY

IN the early part of the nineteenth century Michigan held out no alluring prospects to the tide of immigration sweeping into the West. Government surveyors had pronounced the state a large swamp, unfit for habitation. Even had the report been more favorable, prospective settlers could have reached the territory only by a long and tedious overland journey. In 1800 the census credited Michigan Territory with a population of 3,206. Ten years later an increase of approximately 1,500 was shown with 1,650 residing in Detroit. However, the completion of the Erie Canal and the introduction of steamboat navigation on Lake Erie changed the conditions completely. From Rhode Island to Maine and in all the New York counties bordering on the Erie Canal and the Hudson and the Mohawk river the popular song hit was Michigania:

Come, all ye Yankee farmers who wish to change your lot,
Who've spunk enough to travel beyond your native spot,
And leave behind the village where Pa and Ma do stay,
Come follow me, and settle in Michigania—
Yea, yea, yea, in Michigania.

This tide of immigration increased the number of villages from nine in 1825 to twenty-six in 1835 and

caused Michigan to be more homogeneous in population and more definitely "Eastern" in outlook than any of the other states in the Northwest.

The people in the new territory of Michigan brought with them the accustomed educational practices and points of view of their earlier homes, and these were passed on to the next generation in the same manner as the customs of agriculture, religion, household economy, and government. But few people up to this time had grasped the idea that education in any of its aspects might be put upon a scientific basis. Educational activities were based upon opinion, belief, conviction. Activities springing from such sources change their procedure but slowly.

This seems a sufficiently good reason for examining the legal provisions with respect to control of education found in the statutes of the "home" state—a potent source of influence for many years; also for examining the statutes of neighboring states whose settlers, like those of Michigan, were giving legal form to their school systems. For this enables us to view the particular trend of thought in education which is the special province of state legislatures and representative of the people at least in theory.

Vermont's law of 1827 provided for a board of commissioners for common schools, but the board was given no power. It prepared a list of suitable text-books but could not enforce their use. It was primarily an instrument for collecting information and making reports to the legislature. The town committee had general charge of all the schools in the town, examined teachers, super-

vised the teachers' work, determined the books to be used, and made an annual report to the secretary of state. This official therefore became a state educational officer whose main duty was to apportion the income from the public school fund established in 1825. He had no supervisory power and as a matter of fact supervision by even the town committee seemed to take too much control from the districts, hence this power was abolished in 1833.

Massachusetts in 1789 legalized the district system which had been generally established throughout the state for many years. In 1827 each district was directed to appoint a prudential committeeman with power to manage all matters connected with the school in his district as determined by the electors in school meeting. This, Mr. Martin said, "marks the high water mark of modern democracy, and the low water mark of the Massachusetts public school system."¹ Without leadership the Massachusetts schools went from bad to worse. Finally, in 1838, the Governor approved a bill creating a state board of education and empowering it to appoint a secretary. Horace Mann was the first appointee. Neither the board nor the secretary were given power. Changes in the schools with respect to uniformity of text books, adequate support, qualifications of teachers, or what you will, could be brought about only through exhortation and campaigns of education.

In New York state, previous to 1812, educational control was in the hands of a board of regents, but the bill by which this board was organized provided only for

¹Martin, *Evolution of the Massachusetts Public School System*, 92.

secondary and higher education. The board repeatedly called attention to the need of a system of common schools and finally succeeded in getting action in 1811. The governor at this time appointed a committee of five to draw up a scheme which should provide common schools for the state. The committee reported and a system of schools was organized by legislative action in 1812. One of the notable features of the law was the provision for an official to be known as the superintendent of common schools to be appointed by the council of appointment. He was charged with improving and managing the school funds, better organizing the common school system (he had nothing to do with secondary and higher education), preparing estimates of receipts and expenditures of school moneys, and making an annual report to the legislature. His general knowledge of school affairs within the state came from the reports made by the various county clerks. Provision was also made for supervision of schools and certification of teachers by town officials. The immediate control of the schools was in the hands of district officers.

Gideon Hawley was the first appointee to the office of superintendent of common schools in New York state and proved very efficient indeed. As a result of political jobbery he was removed from office by the council of appointment who thereupon appointed an extremely poor representative of the legal profession to the vacant place. So unwelcome was this act that the legislature by acclamation abolished the office to be rid of its incumbent and transferred the powers and

duties of the superintendent of common schools to the secretary of state. One year later, 1822, this official was given appellate jurisdiction and his decisions made final in all matters of controversy arising under the school code, though no power was given him to enforce his decisions.

The present state common school system of Pennsylvania began in 1834. Provision was made for general administration of the system through the office of the secretary of the commonwealth. His duties in this respect were to devise plans for improving the schools, to estimate income and expenditure of school moneys, and to prepare forms for making reports. He was authorized to settle disputes arising out of the distribution of public money and also to adjust differences which might arise between school directors and inspectors. His decision was not final.

Provisions were made in this law for division into school districts, for the election of school directors, and for the appointment of inspectors by the several courts of quarter sessions. The school inspectors reported directly to the secretary of state.

The Kentucky legislature in an act approved by the governor in 1838 provided for a board of education to consist of the secretary of state, the attorney general, and a superintendent of public instruction to be appointed. The duties of the superintendent were to manage and supervise the school fund, apportion school money, prepare forms for reports, and present statistics with respect to school conditions. Provision was made for dividing the counties into school districts and the

election of trustees in each. The county courts were directed to appoint five commissioners for each county who were to apportion school moneys to the districts, to prepare definite items of information for their annual report to the superintendent of public instruction, and, with the directors, to examine all teachers.

Tennessee in 1836 provided for a board of commissioners for common schools with a superintendent of public instruction as executive officer. The superintendent was required to submit an annual report to the legislature containing a statement of the amount of the school fund and plans for improving it. He was also directed to propose plans for the organization of the common schools. Such a plan was submitted to and approved by the governor in 1838 and the duties of the superintendent stated in greater detail. Five commissioners were to be elected in each county and in them was vested the control of the schools.

In 1833 Louisiana enacted a general school law which made the secretary of state *ex-officio* the superintendent of public instruction. All governing boards of educational institutions of whatever grade as well as those managing the affairs of the common schools were directed under penalty to make annual reports to the state officer. The duties of the superintendent were of the same general character as those laid down in the states already mentioned.

Turning now to the states on Michigan's southern border: Ohio in 1825 made provisions for the district system and in 1831 school district officers were made a body politic and corporate. In 1837 the legislature

created the office of superintendent of common schools and in the following year adopted this officer's plan for reorganizing the common school system. The duties of the superintendent were: To collect all important information with respect to the common schools, to report the condition and value of school lands, to furnish forms to school officers for making reports, to apportion the school fund, and, for publicity purposes, to publish a periodical to be called the *Ohio Common School Director*.

In the sphere of local control the township clerk was made township school superintendent, directed to make an abstract of all district returns and to visit all schools in the township at least once. Directors were provided for the districts, and a county board of examiners was appointed by the Court of Common Pleas with power to examine teachers and recommend text books for use in the district schools.

Illinois in 1825 put state control of education in the office of the secretary of state in so far as it was concerned with the care and apportionment of the school fund. The necessary data were abstracted for him by the clerk of the county commissioners' court from the reports of the district trustees. The most outstanding provision of this law was that which made the common schools of Illinois free from tuition charge. However, this was nullified two years later by making free schools optional and permitting no one to be taxed for support of schools except he gave his written consent.

Indiana made constitutional provisions for education as follows: "—as soon as circumstances will permit,

(the legislature) to provide by law for a general system of education, ascending in regular gradation from township schools to a state university,—wherein tuition shall be gratis and equally open to all.” While this enactment established in theory what we have come to call the “educational ladder,” it was many years before the theory became established in practice. In 1833 the district system was voted in and local control became so local that individual parents bargained with the teacher with respect to the amount to be paid for the schooling of the child or children.

In summary, we find that state administration of education was confined mainly to the common schools. Only Kentucky, Tennessee, Louisiana gave a title to the state official which indicated a greater scope of possible influence. The secretary of state appeared as the executive officer as frequently as one specially selected for the purpose. All specially selected officers were appointed and neither in the case of the secretary of state nor of the appointed superintendent were any educational qualifications whatsoever demanded. In New York, Pennsylvania and Louisiana the superintendent was granted more or less power. The commonly prescribed duties of the office were:

1. To improve and account for the public school fund.
2. To apportion school moneys.
3. To report on conditions of the common schools and recommend to the legislature desirable changes in the system.
4. To provide forms and regulations for reports from local school officers.

5. To estimate the expenditures of money for school purposes.
6. To submit an annual report to the legislature.

It is clearly evident that the superintendent of common schools was little more than a high class clerk whose time was occupied largely with the keeping of accounts, compiling of statistics, prodding procrastinating county clerks, school directors and the like, but with little real power over conditions affecting the schools.

Reports to the superintendent of schools usually followed this procedure: District officers to town officers; abstract of district reports by town officers to county officers, usually the county clerk; abstract of town officers' reports by county clerk to the state officer; abstract of these reports to the legislature.

In all these states what had come to be the generally accepted policy in school administration stands out clearly—very slight, if any, supervision or coercion of the local units by the state department. Only in New York, by virtue of the powers granted to the board of regents and to the superintendent of common schools, and in Louisiana is there evidence of centralization—in both cases due to the influence of the French political philosophers of the eighteenth century who enunciated the principles of control over education which should be national in its scope.

While this development was taking place in the states mentioned, what was the Territory of Michigan doing?

During the period 1805-37 the territorial government made several provisions for education. There is record

of a school law enacted in 1809 but no record to show that any action was taken.² In 1817 the Catholepistemiad or University of Michigania was established by law though not in fact;³ an institution which later was held by the courts to be the legal and lineal antecedent of the present University of Michigan. Thirteen professorships were provided. The incumbents in addition to teaching were "to establish colleges, academies, schools, libraries, museums, athenaeums, botanic gardens, laboratories, and other useful literary and scientific institutions and to appoint officers, instructors, and instructi in, among, and throughout the various counties, cities, towns, townships, and other geographical divisions of Michigan."

The highly centralized control of education in the Catholepistemiad is worthy of note; the people had no voice in the matter whatsoever. The President appointed the Governor, the Governor appointed the faculty, the faculty established various types of educational institutions and appointed all teachers and school officers—all that was asked of the people was to support the system. However, this undemocratic organization was at one with the civil government of the Territory since all local offices were created and filled by authority of the governor. With respect to the value of this scheme of organization Justice Cooley said:

The plan was crude and pedantic, but its author had grasped certain principles which were of the very highest importance, and which from this time became incorporated in the policy of the Territory, and subsequently of the State also. In every

²*Territorial Laws*, II, p. vii (Titles of Missing Laws).

³*Ibid*, 104-106.

State, as he believed, the education of the people is important to the State itself, and should be assumed as a state duty. It should not be restricted to elementary education merely, but the State ought to place within the reach of its youth such higher education also as is commonly given by the colleges of the land. And this education should be non-sectarian.⁴

In 1821 the law establishing the Catholepistemiad was repealed and the Governor and Judges were authorized to provide for an institution to be called the University of Michigan. Control of all public education was placed in the hands of twenty-one trustees instead of the faculty as in the Catholepistemiad. The trustees were empowered to establish colleges, academies, and to inspect them; to make laws for their government; to appoint all members of the teaching body, fix their salaries, discharge them if thought best; and to control the funds. The provision for a general tax for school support authorized by the Act of 1817 was repealed; the new system depended for its support on the revenue from lands set apart for educational purposes and whatever might be contributed by public spirited citizens.

In 1827 the Legislative Council turned its attention to the common schools.⁵ The provisions then enacted showed New England influence as they embodied the fundamental principles of the Massachusetts law of 1789 and the earlier law of 1647. Townships containing fifty householders or families were directed to provide a school for at least six months in the year in which reading, writing, arithmetic, spelling and decent behavior should be taught; townships of one hundred

⁴Cooley, *Michigan*, 310.

⁵*Territorial Laws*, II, 472-477.

householders were required to maintain a school giving instruction as above for the entire year; townships of one hundred fifty householders were required to maintain a school of the above type for six months and an advanced English school for the year; and townships of two hundred or more householders were in addition to the above to employ a grammar school master. The township trustees certificated teachers within the township and inspected the schools. The law provided that, *if the voters so decided*, the township might be divided into school districts. When such action was taken, three trustees were elected in each district to manage the school. Though there is room, perhaps, for a difference of opinion, the law apparently provided for the entire support of the schools by public taxation. The law was weakened, however, by virtue of the fact that if two-thirds of the voters in a township were not in sympathy with the provisions of this law, such township was free to do as it pleased with respect to providing educational facilities for its children. This gave opportunity for establishing church and private schools and was doubtless so intended.

In 1829 the Legislative Council did some further tinkering with the common school laws.⁹ It is quite probable that the law of 1827 was too advanced for the time and that but few townships, if any, complied with it. They could accept it or not as they chose. All provisions with respect to the number of householders in a township and the kind of school to be maintained were repealed, also the provisions for the support of

⁹*Ibid*, 769-777.

schools by taxation. The rate bill or tuition charge was authorized. Each township was required to elect five commissioners whose duty it was to lay off the township into districts—*there was no longer any choice in the matter*. In each district three directors were to manage the external affairs of the school and report to the superintendent of common schools the number of pupils taught for three months and the amount of money received from the county commissioner for school purposes.

Provision was also made for the appointment of an official to be called the superintendent of common schools whose duties were, "to report annually to the Legislative Council the condition of the school lands the amount of scholars taught, and whatever else may appear to him necessary concerning the said lands and the condition of the schools in the territory."⁷ No record of such an appointment can be found.

These laws, one and all, expressed the convictions of the territorial leaders with respect to education. What are the principles involved?

First—education is a function of the state. The fact that the laws relating to education were passed by the civil authorities and that all school offices of whatever grade were political in character concedes the point.

Second—public education is non-sectarian. The first officials of the Catholepistemiad were a Presbyterian minister and a Catholic priest.

Third—education is to be provided by public taxation; and the opposed principle that the maintenance of

⁷An act to provide for and regulate common schools, Sec. 30, Laws of 1829.

schools for the education of children is primarily a parental responsibility. The former is shown in the law of 1827 and the latter in the law of 1829. The principle of tax supported schools was thus early enunciated and was fully accepted by Detroit fifteen years later though not by the State as a whole until 1850.

Fourth—the state may determine what shall be taught in the schools. Statutes drawn by the officers in 1817 state the subjects which are to be taught in the primary schools and in the classical academies. The law of 1827 is also definite in its provisions with respect to the curriculum.

Fifth—the principle of local control rather than the extreme centralization of the earlier period was firmly settled on the state by establishing the district system in 1829. The township as the real unit of administration was not to appear again in many years.

Sixth—the state may determine the minimum amount of time which the school shall be taught. No school by virtue of the law of 1829 could receive a share of the public money set apart for school purposes unless this provision were met.

Seventh—the state has the right to inspect and supervise schools. Trustees and visitors to perform these duties were provided for in both University laws.

Eighth—the school system of Michigan is to be an organic whole. Disregarding the pedantic verbiage of the law which established the Catholepistemiad the present school system, "the Michigan idea," is there clearly set forth in general principle—elementary school,

secondary school, the University at the top, all under unified control.

Educational conditions in the common schools of the state at the time of Michigan's admission to the Union are described by Justice Cooley as follows:

The schools at the time that state government was established were still very primitive affairs. There were as yet no professional teachers, some farmer or mechanic, or perhaps a grown up son or daughter, who had had the advantages of the common schools of New York or New England, offered his or her services as teacher during the dull season of regular employment, and consented to take as wages such sum as the district could afford to pay. A summer school taught by a woman, who would be paid six or eight dollars a month, and a winter school taught by a man, whose compensation was twice as great, was what was usually provided for. But in addition to wages the teacher received his board, "boarding round" among the patrons of the school, and remaining with each a number of days determined by the number of pupils sent to school The school books are miscellaneous, and consist largely of those brought by the parents when migrating to the territory The new settlers made such provision for the education of their children as was possible under the circumstances in which they were placed, and the fruits of their labors and sacrifices in this direction were in many cases surprising.⁸

⁸Cooley, *Michigan*, 315-316.

CHAPTER II

POWERS AND DUTIES OF THE FIRST SUPERINTENDENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION

IN May, 1835, a convention was called at Detroit to form a constitution. Mr. Isaac E. Crary was made chairman of a committee appointed to draft an article with respect to education. The committee's report contained an unique feature—nothing of the kind is found in any previous state constitution:

1. The Governor shall nominate, and by and with the consent of the Legislature, in joint vote, shall appoint a superintendent of Public Instruction, who shall hold office for two years, and whose duties shall be prescribed by law.¹

The article in addition made provision for establishing a school fund, for a system of common schools to be in session at least three months annually, for the establishment of libraries, and for protecting and improving the lands yielding income to the University.

July 26, 1836, Governor Mason nominated John D. Pierce to fill the office of superintendent of public instruction.

Mr. Pierce was born in New Hampshire in 1797, graduated from Brown University in 1822, and after a year spent in Princeton Theological Seminary entered the ministry. He retained his pastorate for four years

¹Constitution of 1835, Art. X, Sec. 1.

and then became principal of an academy in Goshen, Connecticut. In the following year, 1831, he settled in Marshall, Michigan, as a Congregational missionary, and there formed a close friendship with General Crary. Crary was a college graduate and greatly interested in education. Together they read and discussed Cousin's *Report on the Prussian System of Education*. This report is generally supposed to have been of considerable influence in shaping the thought of the first superintendent of public instruction.

In accordance with the constitutional provision the legislature in 1836 defined the duties of the superintendent in the following terms:

An act to define the duties of the superintendent of public instruction and for other purposes.

Sec. 1. Be it enacted by the senate and house of representatives of the state of Michigan, That it shall be the duty of the superintendent of public instruction, to make out an inventory of all the lands, and all other property, if there be any, according to the best information he can obtain without personally viewing the same, which have been or may be set apart, and reserved for the purposes of education in this state with a statement of the condition and location of said property.

Sec. 2. The superintendent shall give his views in writing to the legislature, on or before the second Monday of January, one thousand eight hundred and thirty-seven, relative to the further disposition of said property.

Sec. 3. He shall prepare and digest a system for the organization and establishment of common schools, and a university and its branches.

Sec. 4. It shall be his duty to require of commissioners or trustees of common schools or other officers who have been or may be appointed to take care of said property, not only a

statement of the location and condition but an appraisement of the same.

Sec. 5. He shall in like manner require of the directors of school districts, reports of their respective districts, embracing a statement of all the property belonging to said district, its condition and valuation, the number of children between the ages of five and sixteen years within each district, the length of time a school has been kept, the number of scholars who have attended, and branches taught, and the amount paid for such school for the year ending first of September next, and it is hereby made the duty of said commissioners, trustees, directors, or other proper officers to perform the duties specified in this and in the preceding section.

Sec. 6. He shall arrange and embody all the said reports under proper heads and titles, in a condensed form, and lay the same before the legislature on or before the second Monday of January, one thousand eight hundred and thirty-seven.

Sec. 7. He may hold a correspondence with such members of literary institutions as he may deem proper.

Sec. 8. He shall take charge of all those lands which have been or may be set apart and reserved for the purposes of education, in those counties and townships where no commissioners or trustees have been appointed; he shall have power to preserve them from waste or trespass; the same as commissioners or trustees are empowered by statute laws now in force relative to them.

Sec. 9. He shall receive the money which shall be paid by any person or persons as an equivalent for exemption from military duty, and the clear proceeds of all fines assessed in the several counties for any breach of the penal laws of this state; which said moneys the said superintendent shall retain subject to the further order of the legislature.

Sec. 10. The superintendent shall, before entering upon the duties of his office, give a bond to the treasurer of the state, with two or more sufficient sureties to be approved of by the

treasurer, in the penal sum of ten thousand dollars conditioned that he shall pay over on demand all moneys which he may receive by virtue of his office, to the treasurer or other officer authorized by law to receive the same.

Sec. 11. He shall receive for his services the sum of five hundred dollars per annum, payable quarterly, out of any moneys in the treasury not otherwise appropriated.

Sec. 12. Said superintendent shall not, during his continuance in office, hold any other office or attend to the business of any other profession except that of instruction.

Approved July 26, 1836.

In compliance with section 3 the superintendent reported a plan for the organization of the common schools. With the exception of using fewer officers in administering the schools there is no essential difference between the system planned by him and put in force in 1837 and that which was organized under the territorial laws of 1829 and 1833. The office of township commissioner of common schools was abolished and the duties added to those of the township board of school inspectors. The membership of this board was reduced from five to three and the number of district officers from six to three. Provision was made as in 1827 for support of schools by public taxation.

The law of 1829 and of 1833 had provided for a superintendent of common schools but as previously noted no record of such an appointment can be found. Perhaps a good and sufficient reason is supplied by virtue of the action of the legislature which fixed the annual salary of this officer at \$25 and expenses.

How did the statutory duties of the proposed superintendent of the territorial period compare with those of

the superintendent of the new state system? The duties of the former officer as stated were:

1. To take charge of the school lands when no officer had been elected to perform this duty.
2. To receive reports from school directors; these to contain
 - a. Number of pupils taught for three months or more.
 - b. Number taught the year preceding.
 - c. Additional time school was taught, i. e., beyond three months.
 - d. Amount of money received from township school commissioners.
3. To report annually to the legislature—
 - a. Condition of school lands.
 - b. Money received from rents or otherwise.
 - c. Number of children taught.
 - d. Any other item with respect to school lands or school conditions which he might think best.

The superintendent's duties in relation to the common schools as stated in the laws of 1837 were:

1. To receive reports from county clerks giving the following information:
 - a. Number of townships in the county.
 - b. Number of districts in the townships.
 - c. Number of districts making required reports.
 - d. Length of school term.
 - e. Amount of public money received.
 - f. Number of children taught and number of children from 5 to 17 years inclusive.
 - g. Amount of money raised in the township.
 - h. How school moneys were spent.
2. To furnish school officers the necessary blank forms for reports and teachers' certificates.
3. To apportion to the various counties the proceeds of the school funds.

4. To give proper instructions for the organization and government of the public schools.

5. To give such directions as he should think advisable in relation to the course of study.

The last two items, number 5 in particular, bring the superintendent of 1837 in actual touch with the schools to some degree, in this respect differing from the statutory activities of the earlier Michigan superintendent of common schools and from the provisions made with respect to the state educational officer in the other commonwealths which have been reviewed. This is to be noted, however, that the schools were in no wise legally obligated to heed the superintendent's advice. Local control was strong as before.

By virtue of the constitutional enactment of 1835 the control of the school and university land and the apportionment of the income therefrom no longer followed the methods determined during the territorial period. The whole matter of the disposition of the land was largely left to the judgment of the superintendent, when the legislature did not interfere, and consequently the amount of income for school and university support was to a great extent dependent upon his business ability.² The management of the school funds was really the feature of the superintendent's functions in which the constitutional convention was most interested rather than any educational policy which he might think best to inaugurate in the schools. The many details involved in selling and leasing the land intrusted to him, collecting interest and principal, looking after bad debts and

²Act No. CIV of 1837.

the like consumed the major part of the time given to the duties of the office.

Nowhere in the United States was it the custom for the state educational officer to take an active part in the management of the common schools and, as has been shown, Superintendent Pierce's plan for the organization of the common schools of Michigan followed closely the trend of usual practice. But when he approached the problem of organizing a state university there were few precedents to guide him. The first source of influence was the plans of the Catholepistemiad of 1817 and the University of Michigan of 1821 which have been outlined. The second source of influence was doubtless found in Cousin's *Report on Public Instruction in Prussia*. He stated that Prussia organized a special department of administration in 1819 for the purpose of general control of education. At the head of the department was placed a minister of public instruction equal in rank to any of his colleagues:

This ministry embraced everything relating to science and consequently all school libraries and kindred institutions, such as botanic gardens, museums, cabinets, the lower schools of surgery and medicine, academies of music, etc. Under the Minister's supervision was included everything of a moral and intellectual character and these institutions communicated directly with him. The Royal Commissary or supervisory officer of each university, the members of the Provincial School-board who supervised secondary education and the seminaries for training masters of primary schools, special councillors for the primary schools in each department were, one and all, nominated by the Minister of Public Instruction and reported directly to him.

Thus nothing escapes the eye and the power of the Minister,

yet at the same time each of the departments of public instruction enjoys a sufficient liberty of action The Minister without entering into the infinite details of popular instruction, is thoroughly informed as to results, and directs everything by instruction emanating from the center, which tends to diffuse a national unity throughout the whole. He does not interfere minutely with the business of secondary instruction, but nothing is done without his sanction, and this is never given but on full and accurate reports. The same applies to the universities. . . . In short the end of the entire organization of public instruction is, to leave details to the local powers and to reserve to the Minister and his Council the direction and general impulse given to the whole.³

The plan for the university and its branches, as outlined by Superintendent Pierce and adopted by the legislature, provided that twelve regents be appointed by the governor, with the consent of the senate, to take the place of the twenty-one trustees of the territorial University of Michigan; that the superintendent should act with the regents in establishing branches of the university, thus curtailing their powers as compared with those of the trustees of the earlier institution; that the superintendent control the university lands under direction of the legislature, whereas, before, this control had been vested in the board of trustees; that the superintendent appoint a board of visitors whose duty was to inspect the university and make a report to him of the prevailing conditions; that the superintendent's approval be secured before the inauguration of any building program which the regents might desire to undertake; that the superintendent receive from the

³Cousin, *Report on the State of Public Instruction in Prussia*, 4-21, *passim*. Substitute *faculty* for *ministry* above and note the resemblance to the Catholepistemiad.

regents, annually, a detailed report of their activities which he in turn was instructed to present to the legislature with his comments.⁴

Not a single person directly connected with the schools of Michigan of any grade was appointed by the superintendent of public instruction, nor was there any school official over whom he had direct authority. In the field of school supervision he had no power to enforce. Through letters, reports and visitation he might bring about a modicum of uniformity and promulgate his educational thinking, but there was absolutely no compulsion possible. The districts worked under the general school statutes and brooked interference from no man. The main influence of Cousin's Report was to develop a limited, one-man administrative system with duties definitely stated in the law, rather than a board as in 1817 and 1821. The system under the board was much more Prussian in spirit than under the superintendent of public instruction.

Slight as the Superintendent's control over the university was, as stated above, yet within three years the regents were trying to free themselves from it and to control the university in the same unsupervised fashion as the local school officials controlled the primary schools, hence the following communication to the legislature:

The board of regents of the University of Michigan, respectfully present to the honorable members of the senate and house of representatives of the state of Michigan the following re-

⁴Act No. LV of 1837.

port, in obedience to the joint resolution relative to the University of Michigan, adopted and approved March 25, 1840:⁵

The resolution requires the board of regents to report to your honorable bodies, at the commencement of their session, "if any changes and what are necessary to be made in the organic law of the state relative to said university in order to secure more effectually the objects of the same."

The board of regents, having duly considered this subject respectfully state that changes are needed, and such as were contemplated in the bill number thirty-six, in the file of the senate, and herewith presented, as containing the views of the board.

The first change in the organic law deemed essential, is the *proper restriction of responsibility to the board of regents*. At present the responsibility is divided, and the board would be greatly facilitated in their action, were such amendments made of the twelfth, chapter first, part first of the revised statutes of this state, as would throw entire responsibility on the board and require them to report their annual proceedings to the legislature.

The second change relates to the *trust and management of the funds of the university*. Under the existing law it is impossible for the board to adopt their measures to their means, or to project or execute such plans as the interests of education, the wants of the state, and the resources of the university may demand. The machinery contemplated in title eleven, chapter two, and sections fifteen and sixteen is too complicated and cumbrous, and the duties imposed on the superintendent of public instruction, in connection with the university, unnecessary and onerous.⁶

The first change mentioned is concerned with the board of university visitors appointed by the superintendent for the purpose of inspecting the university, and

⁵House Journal, 1840, pp. 493, 589.

⁶Senate Documents, 1841, pp. 265-266.

with the duty of the regents to make a detailed report of their activities to the superintendent. The house committee on education reported:

That they see no good reason for the change. The law places the Superintendent at the head of Public Instruction. He is as much a Superintendent of the University and its branches as of the primary schools. This was the design of the constitution, and if carried out by the legislature, will make our system of public instruction one of harmony in all its parts. With these views, the committee do not deem it advisable to concur in the recommendations of the Regents.⁷

Were the second proposition put into effect it would, so the committee thought, give the regents power not only to expend the income from the university funds but the principal as well, which was altogether out of harmony with the intent of the law. The house accepted the committee's report and no action was taken.

With respect to this general scheme or organization outlined above, Superintendent Pierce in his report for 1838 said:

. the legislature passed three distinct acts; one to provide for the disposition of the university and primary school lands, and for other purposes; one for the organization and government of the university with its branches; and one for the establishment and support of primary schools. These several acts, as revised by the legislature at its extra sessions, constitutes what may justly be termed the *Michigan school system* What remains is to carry it into successful operation, making from time to time such modifications, as experience shall determine to be necessary and desirable.⁸

In his first report to the legislature in 1837⁹ is found

⁷Shearman, *System of Public Instruction and Primary School Law of Michigan*,

⁸Report for 1838, pp. 37-38.

⁹Report for 1837, pp. 4-19 *passim*.

Superintendent Pierce's main constructive thinking with respect to the need of education, the proper function of education in a democracy, and the conditions under which education may be maintained at the highest point of efficiency:

To enter upon a high career of improvement as a state is undoubtedly an object of paramount importance. It is so because it involves the reputation of the state, and also the highest good of present and coming generations. If we would preserve inviolate the sound principles of liberty—of liberty civil and religious—if we would perpetuate free institutions; if we would hand down to those who are to come after us a constitution, government and laws, based upon the essential and imperishable rights of man; if we would rear a superstructure of elements more durable than crowns or pyramids, we must dig deep and lay broad and permanent the foundations of knowledge and virtue

In the attainment of an object of such magnitude, so grand and comprehensive as a nation's welfare, prosperity and happiness primary schools are the main dependence. They ought to be the foundation of our whole system of public instruction, as they are indeed the chief support of all our free institutions children of every name and age must be taught the qualifications and duties of American citizens, and learn early in life the art of self control—they must be educated.

Can any plan be devised by which the principles of virtue and knowledge may be so diffused among the great body of the people as the existence and perpetuity of our institutions seem to require? The general impression is, that it may be done effectually by a well digested system of free schools. There is no alternative, this being the only process by which the whole population can be made acquainted with their rights and duties as citizens of one commonwealth. Schools, therefore, as the only efficient means of accomplishing such an object, ought

emphatically to be the property and care of the state. . . . Hence the government ought so far to assume the direction, as to see to it that the benefit of the school system is extended to all parts of the community.

In this report Superintendent Pierce embodied a fundamental American ideal, namely, the right of the individual to the opportunity of preparing himself for such enjoyments and such obligations as a democratic form of government offers. All his thinking opposed the conception of class structure and was in full harmony with that individualism which was born of frontier life:

It has been said, and rightly too, that the common schools are truly republican. The great object is to furnish good instruction in all the elementary and common branches of knowledge for all classes of the community; as good indeed for the poorest boy of the state, as the rich man can furnish for his children with all his wealth. The object is universal education—the education of every individual of all classes—the only solid basis of true equality. . . . In the public schools all classes are blended together; the rich mingle with the poor and are educated in company. . . . It is this system, indeed, which brings forward and elevates to places of distinction a due proportion of men who owe nothing either to birth or fortune, but all to the free schools and their own exertions. . . . Let free schools be established and maintained in perpetuity and there can be no such thing as a permanent aristocracy in our land.

Granted the validity of the statements made the logical conclusion was drawn that education, as in the Prussian system, must be compulsory:

It is proposed as a subject worthy of the gravest consideration, whether the state can fulfill its high obligation to itself and suffer any to grow up in ignorance. It is apprehended to be the duty of the government to require of all persons, having the

care of children, their education, and effectually to secure the accomplishment of this object they should be required to send them to school the constitutional proportion of each year, between the ages of five and seventeen. Every community has a right to protect itself, prevent as well as remove nuisances, provide for its welfare and preserve a healthful and vigorous existence. But these objects cannot be accomplished when families are allowed to grow up in ignorance of their rights and duties as citizens. . . . They will not infrequently fall a prey to the more knowing of their neighbors, and then abandon themselves to crime.

And in all this there is nothing inconsistent with the principles of rational liberty. It is merely providing for the safety of the state, for its health, happiness and vigorous growth.

But another extremely important matter is still to be presented:

The most perfect organization of the entire system of schools, in all the varied departments of instruction, must fail of securing the desired results without a sufficient number of competent teachers. Without competent teachers, the most perfect system of external organizations must be powerless—must certainly fail of accomplishing its object. The truth is, education is to be regarded as a science and an art; it is a science, for it has its distinct subject, its distinct object, and is governed by its own peculiar laws; and has, like the other sciences, its corresponding art—the art of teaching. Hence results the profession of teacher; the most numerous of any in the country. But how little understood is either the science or the art! and how little esteemed is the profession of teacher! and how can it be otherwise? If education is a science, how is it to be understood without study? and if teaching is an art, how can it be successfully practiced without suitable preparation?

It is utterly impossible to elevate the schools and make them what they ought to be and must be, to meet the first demands

of all classes of the community, without elevating the rank and character of teachers.

Interest now centers in the constructive work of the superintendents, who succeeded Mr. Pierce, in carrying out the work as planned by him and in meeting the new problems that arise. These activities may be considered under three heads: administrative, supervisory, and judicial.

CHAPTER III

THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE STATE DEPARTMENT— ADMINISTRATIVE FUNCTIONS

WITH respect to the office of the superintendent of public instruction, administration or general control will be used in the following pages as defining that group of activities which deal with:

1. The formulation of, and when sanctioned by the legislature, the carrying out of policies that provide support for the schools, that determine the character of the school plant, and that influence local administrative conditions.

2. The development, regulation, and support of libraries.

3. The certification of teachers.

4. The control of educational activities in state charitable and correctional institutions.

5. The control of educational activities in private and sectarian educational institutions.

6. The preparation of general data and reports and the giving of publicity to the work of the department and to the educational needs of the state.

SCHOOL SUPPORT

Michigan entered the Union as did the other states carved from the Northwest Territory with a perma-

ment source of school support in the lands granted by Congress. Michigan's original sectional grants amounted to 1,148,160 acres with a paper valuation in 1837 of \$5,983,264.33. There were great expectations, as in Connecticut, that in time the income from this fund would satisfactorily maintain the schools without further expense. This state of mind was doubtless pleasant while it lasted.¹

The constitution of Michigan in 1835 provided that The proceeds of all lands that have been or hereafter may be granted by the United States to this state, for the support of schools, which shall hereafter be sold or disposed of, shall be and remain a perpetual fund; the interest of which, together with the rents of all such unsold lands, shall be inviolably appropriated to the support of schools throughout the state.²

Following out this action on the part of the state, congress in 1836 enacted—

That section numbered sixteen in every township of the public lands, and when such section has been sold or otherwise disposed of, other lands equivalent thereto, and as contiguous as may be, shall be granted to the state for the use of schools.³

It will be recalled that the management of this land and the development of the permanent school fund was now one of the duties of the Superintendent of Public Instruction and so remained until 1843, when the state land office was organized.

The provision for state ownership of the primary school lands gave equal rights to all districts in the state with respect to the income from the fund and thus made possible a more equitable apportionment than in

¹Report for 1842, pp. 5, 10.

²Const. of 1835, Article X, Sec. 12.

³*Compiled Laws of Michigan*, 1915, p. 111.

those states where the income from the section was the property of the township in which the section was located—some sections might be valuable and some worthless. Under the Michigan law all townships shared regardless of the value of the local section.

The act to provide for the organization and support of primary schools drawn up by Superintendent Pierce made it the duty of the township board of school inspectors:

4. To apply for and receive from the county treasurer, all moneys appropriated for the primary schools, in their townships, and from the collector of the township all moneys raised therein for the same purpose, as soon as the sum shall be due.

5. To apportion the school money received by them among the several school districts, and parts of districts in their townships, in proportion to the number of scholars in each, between the ages of five and seventeen years, as the same shall be shown by the last annual report of the director of each district: *Provided*, no money shall be apportioned to any district, from which a report shall not have been received, nor to any district in which a school shall not have been kept, at least three months during the year immediately preceding, by a qualified teacher.⁴

* * * * *

37. The moneys to be hereafter distributed annually for the support of primary schools, shall be payable on the first Monday of September in each year, on the warrant of the auditor general, to the treasurer of the several counties.

42. It shall be the duty of the supervisors, at such meeting, to add to the sums of money to be raised in each township of the county, a sum equal to that which shall have been apportioned to such township, to be levied and collected in the same manner as other moneys are directed to be raised in the township.⁵

⁴Act LXIII, Art. IV, 1837.

⁵*Ibid*, Sec. VII.

Primary school districts were empowered:

7. To determine at each annual meeting the length of time, which shall not be less than three months, the school shall be kept; and to fix the amount of money in addition to its apportionment, which may be raised for the support of its schools the ensuing year; the sum so voted, not to exceed in any one year ninety dollars.⁶

This, then, is the first chapter of the story—the constitution ordained that each district maintain a school for at least three months (but with no real penalty attached), and the superintendent planned to support the schools by means of the income from the primary school fund and a general property tax in district and township. The township tax was levied not by consent of the voters but as a duty of the supervisor. Tuition, or the rate bill, was eliminated completely and the district authorized to raise a tax which might be applied on teachers' wages. This was Superintendent Pierce's great contribution to the common school system. The method had, however, been previously sanctioned by Territorial enactment and was also in force in Massachusetts.

Logical as the Superintendent's arguments for free schools were, excellent as was his plan for the support of schools, yet so many districts refused to raise the property tax that Michigan's free school system was a flat failure and the rate bill was restored in 1839. The income from the school fund was, of course, available and met part of the necessary expense for teachers' wages. It was further provided that

. . . . the expense of continuing the school, shall be assessed

⁶*Ibid*, Art. I.

upon and paid by the guardians of the scholars, in proportion to the number of scholars and the length of time such scholars shall severally be signed for or sent to school.⁷

In order to protect the property of the district from such hot-headed enthusiasts for free schools as might be in their midst, a two-thirds vote of the qualified electors present at the annual meeting was made necessary to legalize a general tax. Provision was also made that any district failing to vote a tax for school support should not be deprived of its apportionment of the public money. A school supported by this money would necessarily be free, for all residents had a vested right in the primary fund. But as this amounted to less than forty cents per child between five and seventeen years of age, a school could be maintained from this source for only a very brief period, low as were the teacher's wages at this time. Neither could a township tax be levied by the supervisors except when so directed by a majority vote at the annual town meeting. It is quite evident that the people intended to keep the support of the schools in their own hands.

As a matter of speculation one wonders what would have been the history of the free school movement if the financial panic had not struck the country just as Michigan was getting under way. The early thirties was a period of great expectations. Railroads, canals, and plank roads competed with one another for appropriations from the state treasury. The panic came. The journals of the house and senate were filled with petitions for the relief of this railroad and that canal. The

⁷Act No. 105 of 1839.

purchasers of public lands without number who were caught with a land contract and nothing with which to pay prayed for help. This condition with respect to the buyers of school lands naturally affected the income from the school fund for the legislature promptly came to their relief. Hard times and a people not in the least accustomed to taxing themselves for the entire support of schools made a combination that all the arguments in the world favoring a free school system could not have overcome.

In 1840 the legislature repealed the primary school act of 1837 and all amendments thereto, thus virtually substituting a new school system.⁸ It is quite evident that Superintendent Pierce had little influence with the legislature as the whole act is contrary in spirit to the educational policies developed in his reports. In no uncertain terms his successor, F. Sawyer, Jr., gave his opinion of the work of the legislature:

The repealing act of April, 1840, substitutes a new system for that contained in the revised statutes and subsequent amendments. This substitute and the amendments to it of last winter, constitute what is known as the common school system of Michigan. The first and most striking defect of this new system, as contended in many of the reports,—is ITS INADEQUATE PROVISION FOR THE SUPPORT OF SCHOOLS. A limited tax for a school house, its repairs and appendages, and for a library case and books *may* be imposed by the qualified voters, and assessed upon the *property* of the district, but not a dollar to support the teacher. It is true the amendatory act of last winter provides that the organized township *may* raise, if they deem it expedient, a sum not to exceed one dollar for each child of the legal age; but suppose such a tax is not deemed

⁸Act No. 121 of 1840.

expedient; what becomes of the district school? It is driven back upon the law of 1840; and what does that provide? Why, that the qualified voters may determine how long a school shall be kept and when the public money shall be applied; that qualified teachers may be employed and paid out of the public money; and finally if, as is invariably the case and will be the case for years, the public money falls short, that the *inhabitants having scholars* may get together and provide for a continuance of the school by assessing the *expense* upon *those who send* in proportion to the *number* of children and the *time* sent. The inequality, —not to say injustice here, is apparent. Those who cannot pay anything are wholly excluded from the school. Those, who are a little better off, send until inability to pay longer, excludes them.

By the old law, the *property* of the *whole* went to support schools. . . . And why should not property be taxed? On the mere selfish principle, the state is bound to adopt that system which insures its own safety and happiness. The voluminous testimony everywhere to be found, demonstrating the absolute necessity of common schools to this end, need not be cited before an intelligent legislature.⁹

In his report of the following year, 1842, the Superintendent again attacked the results of earlier legislative action. From the reports that had come to the office he had found that only 64 per cent of the districts had supported a school for three or more months, 4 per cent had supported a school for less than three months, and 34 per cent had had no school at all. What was to be done? The constitution clearly stated that the legislature was required, "to provide for a system of *common* schools, by which a school *shall* be kept up and supported in *each* school district *at least three months* in every year."

⁹Report for 1841, pp. 35 ff.

How was it to be done? Superintendent Sawyer's answer was that the legislature should authorize the levy on township property of about one mill on the dollar. This with the interest on the school fund would create a public fund for school support based on correct principles. To this would be added such sums as the people should choose to vote at the district meeting.¹⁰ It is quite clear that the Superintendent expected that these three sources of support would give Michigan free schools in every district for at least the term of the constitutional provision. The crux of the matter lay in the fact that there was no adequate control over the district.

In this report the question of teachers' wages was taken up. The Superintendent found that the average monthly wage of male teachers was \$12.90—the highest was \$22.00 and the lowest was \$8.00; for female teachers the average was \$5.00—the highest was \$10.00 and the lowest was \$4.00. As board was furnished by the patrons of the school the wages were net. Naturally he held that this salary schedule was far too low and that schools must consequently suffer.¹¹ The attitude of some of the districts at least toward the matter of increase in wages is shown by the statement of a certain township inspector:

The people of this town have but just began here and are very poor. Most of them have as much as they can do to keep themselves alive *without supporting schools*; and, as is always the case, the *poorest of them have all the children*.

¹⁰Report for 1842, pp. 62 ff.

¹¹*Ibid.*, p. 33.

Superintendent Sawyer commented as follows:

. as it seems to be taken for granted that the poorest have all the children, all facts, arguments and appeals combine to urge the duty of making education as public, as free, as universal as possible.¹²

In this report of Superintendent Sawyer's is raised for the first time the question of how public money may be most fairly apportioned. The Superintendent was not in sympathy with spreading the proceeds of the school fund broadcast over the state according to the number of children of the census age but rather to apportion it in the various districts and townships on the basis of actual attendance. In this way he hoped to develop local initiative in school matters.¹³

The legislature of 1843 was evidently influenced by the vigorous attacks of the Superintendent. The amendment of 1841 empowering the townships to levy a tax not to exceed one dollar per census child was repealed. Provision was made by which the district board might exempt indigent children from contributing to the cost of fuel and teacher's wages and might purchase necessary text books for them. This was suggested by Superintendent Sawyer in 1841. The mill tax proposition bore fruit. The supervisors were directed to assess \$25.00 on the taxable property of the townships for the year 1844, a tax of one-half mill upon each dollar for the year 1845, and annually thereafter a tax of one mill. Of the amount so raised \$25.00 was to be applied annually for township library purposes up to a certain point, and the balance to be apportioned in the same

¹²Report for 1842, p. 37.

¹³*Ibid.*, p. 24.

manner as the primary school interest fund within the township.¹⁴

Superintendent Comstock who succeeded Mr. Sawyer seems to have been satisfied with the method of school support legalized in 1843 and the conditions thereby maintained. At least he says nothing on that subject in his reports.

Superintendent Mayhew in 1845 pointed out that in "one entire county, eighteen additional towns, and five hundred and eighty-eight additional districts not one common school had been maintained the constitutional term." He suggested strong medicine for the relief of this condition, namely, that the inspector be empowered to open a school for three months at least in case the district did not do so by the 10th of May; that he apply the public money to the expense and raise the balance by a tax on the property of the district.¹⁵ A diligent search fails to find that the legislature ever considered such a radical proposition and it is not very likely that the Superintendent thought that it would. Neither criticism of the existing policy nor any constructive policy with respect to the *general* method of school support is to be found in his report for 1845.

In 1846 the legislature enacted:

The qualified voters of any township may, by vote of the annual town meeting, raise by tax a sum not to exceed fifty cents for each scholar in the township between the ages of four and eighteen for the support of common schools in the township.¹⁶

This was a return to the enactment of 1841 with the

¹⁴Act No. 50, Sec. 44, Laws of 1843.

¹⁵Report for 1845, p. 27.

¹⁶Sec. 140, Revised Laws of 1846.

exception that the per capita tax in 1846 was but half as much.

In 1847 the legal sources of the means for the support of schools were as follows:

1. The interest on the school fund.
2. A tax of one mill upon the dollar for all taxable property in the state.
3. The voters in any township might, at their annual meeting, vote a tax not exceeding fifty cents for every scholar between four and eighteen years of age.
4. Districts might vote a district tax for building school-houses, not exceeding two hundred dollars in the year, where there were not more than thirty scholars; and not exceeding three hundred dollars, where there were not more than fifty scholars. Districts might vote any "necessary" tax for repairs and furnishing the house, and for the payment of legal debts. Districts with more than fifty scholars could vote a tax of twenty dollars for the purchase of globes, maps, etc.
5. The rate bill, that is, tuition charge.

Superintendent Mayhew in his report for 1848 was of the opinion that the statutes of 1847 recognized the principle that the property of the state should educate the children of the state.¹⁷ Reference was made here to the mill tax on taxable property. However, no tax was levied by the district, as such, for the payment of teachers' wages. The district contribution was by means of the rate bill.

Growing out of this same principle the laws of 1843 and 1847 provided for the schooling of indigent children

¹⁷Report for 1848, p. 56.

by remitting charges for tuition and for fuel; necessary text books were bought by the district board and all expenses so incurred were made a charge on the taxable property of the district.¹⁸

On the whole Superintendent Mayhew was pretty well satisfied with conditions:

Our system of Public Instruction is very generally and justly commended by all who are acquainted with it. In some aspects, it is true, it might be improved. But with a very few modifications it will not be inferior to the system of any state or nation.

The modifications he referred to did not pertain to school support but to the advantages to be derived from inaugurating a system of school supervision to bring about such excellent results as were being secured in New York.¹⁹

In 1848 that section of the laws of 1846 giving townships permission to raise a per capita tax was repealed and the power to raise such a tax placed in the hands of the district board. This doubtless worked to the disadvantage of the weaker districts. Whether Superintendent Mayhew exerted any influence for or against this measure it is impossible to say.

The constitutional convention of 1850 naturally interested itself in education. In but few instances did any members of the committee deem it necessary to present arguments for free schools. The principle was accepted. To show how men were looking on educational values at that time it is of interest to quote briefly from the speech of one of the members:

The tax, I say again, should be on property, so the poor would

¹⁸Sec. 57, 58, Revised School Law of 1847.

¹⁹Report for 1848, p. 13.

be saved from a burden which otherwise might be too heavy, and the rich secure the most ample protection for their property, by the diffusion of intelligence and morals among all classes. . . .

Uneducated mind is educated vice. . . .

These common schools are of exceeding value by way of bringing forward and cultivating minds of great worth, that had otherwise laid forever buried in the obscurity of poverty. . . .

Free schools have a powerful influence in disseminating the principles of true democracy. . . .

A general tax is in many accounts the best mode of providing public schools. Where every man pays his money he will feel an interest.²⁰

Various methods for supporting schools were offered. Of those who spoke practically all favored a mill tax but there was no agreement upon the amount. Some would have the mill tax plus the income from the primary school fund meet the entire expense of maintaining the schools; some would raise but part of the necessary sum in this way and supplement by a district tax; and some while in favor of the second method would not make it necessary to depend upon the districts to supply the needed balance.

The committee finally reported out as follows:

The Legislature shall establish by law a system of primary schools, by which such schools shall be kept in each and every school district for at least three months in each year, free and without charge for tuition to all children between the ages of five and eighteen years, and shall provide for the levying of a tax not exceeding two mills upon the dollar upon all the taxable property in the State, for the support of said schools; and all instruction in the said schools shall be conducted in the English language.²¹

²⁰Shearman, *System of Public Instruction and Primary School Law of Michigan*, 224 ff. *passim*.

²¹*Ibid.*, 241.

The convention was not satisfied with the committee's work and numerous substitutions and amendments were offered. Under these conditions the idea that the proper function of the convention was to lay down some broad principles and leave it to legislative action to establish the system at some future time gained many adherents. The job was passed on in the following terms:

The legislature shall, within five years from the adoption of this constitution, provide for and establish a system of primary schools, whereby a school shall be kept without charge for tuition at least three months in each year in every school district in the state, and all instruction in said school shall be conducted in the English language.²²

Superintendent Shearman in his report of 1851 made this suggestion to the legislature:

The most desirable and practicable method of adapting the law to the provisions of the new Constitution is by a simple increase of the mill tax. This tax might be increased to two mills during the present session and thus during the first two years we should approximate gradually towards the complete and full requirement of the Constitution for free schools, It is respectfully suggested, therefore, if it is deemed advisable to legislate in relation to the subject, during this session, that the one mill tax now required by law be increased to two mills.²³

Also a better method of apportioning the public money was advocated in this report, namely, that it should be based upon the actual attendance of pupils rather than on the census. He stated that the census of those districts where schools had been kept for three months showed a total of 132,234 children while the number attending was less than this by 21,756. A cer-

²²Article XIII, Sec. 4, Constitution of 1850.

²³Report for 1851, p. 93.

tain number of these were doubtless in private schools but, the superintendent argued, if public money depended upon their presence in the public or common school many would transfer. Also the same course of reasoning brings into the schools those who are attending nowhere at all, thus reducing the common stock of vice and crime.²⁴

Following the Superintendent's suggestion the legislature directed the supervisors to assess a tax of two mills upon each dollar of the valuation of taxable property in their townships.²⁵ It ignored, however, his suggestion for a change in the method by which the income of the school fund should be apportioned. This, it will be noted, as time goes on became a habit of the legislature.

The year following the adoption of the new constitution, 1851, shows the following legal provisions for school support:

1. The interest of the school fund.
2. The two mill tax.
3. A permissive district (not township as before) tax of \$1.00 per census child.
4. The same as 1847, above.
5. The rate bill.

In writing on the conditions of the primary schools Superintendent Shearman said:

The success of the system of primary schools adopted in Michigan has met, and indeed exceeded, the most sanguine expectations. The changes which from time to time have been engrafted upon it, as its defects were developed by trial and experience,

²⁴*Ibid*, 94.

²⁵Act No. 140 of 1851.

have, as a general rule, operated successfully, and tended to give greater perfection to the system in all its departments. To render it, if possible, still more perfect, and to give it full adaptation to the situation and wants of our people, is the chief duty of this department.²⁶

In another passage he stated that the function of the state department was general in its nature and for the purpose of making the action of the people of different districts uniform; but it was the province of the legal voters to control and govern the local affairs of the schools according to their own judgment limited only by the above restriction.

In his report for 1853 Superintendent Shearman rejoiced that New York State had, after resorting to all known methods, finally adopted the same methods of school support as had Michigan, namely, mill tax, district tax, rate bill, and free schooling for paupers. He set up the thesis that the schools of Michigan were free, though there was a rate bill of \$37,000, and presented figures to show that money had been raised to such an amount that the constitutional provision had been met. His exposition follows:

The average cost of tuition may be estimated as follows: Allowing to each female teacher two dollars per week for her wages, would be twenty-four dollars for three months; to each male teacher, twenty dollars per month, would be sixty dollars. The average price of teachers' wages, both male and female, would be forty-two dollars. The number of school districts being estimated at three thousand, the aggregate cost of tuition for three months would amount to \$120,000. It appears by the returns, (which are more or less imperfect) that the present cost of tuition for five months, the average length of time the

²⁶Report for 1851, p. 90.

schools have been taught, is \$150,000. Three-fifths of this sum is \$90,000, which is sufficient for a free school in each district for three months in each year, at an average rate of \$30. for three months to each school. But suppose the average to be \$36.00 to each district, the whole amount for the support of the schools throughout the State would be \$108,000. The \$36.00, it will be seen, is a medium between the actual and the supposed cost, as above indicated.

The present resources for purposes of tuition are, in round numbers, as follows:

| | |
|------------------------------------|-------------|
| The two mill tax..... | \$60,000.00 |
| The district tax..... | 12,000.00 |
| Raised by rate bill..... | 37,000.00 |
| Income of primary school fund..... | 56,000.00 |

Striking out the rate bill, which is necessary in order to make tuition free to all for three months, and we have the sum of \$128,000.00. It is therefore evident, that the provisions of the act of the last Legislature have accomplished the object required by the Constitution, and that these provisions are amply sufficient. There is nothing more, in the opinion of this department, necessary to be done.²⁷

Perhaps the satisfaction which the Superintendent showed with respect to school support was the efficient cause which moved the legislature in 1853 to cut the mill tax in half.²⁸ However he expressed no dissatisfaction with this action for the one mill tax in 1854 brought in more revenue than had the two mill tax in 1853. The cause for this increase from the mill tax seems to be that the supervisors were obeying the law with greater compunction than directly after its enactment.

In the report for 1854 Superintendent Shearman

²⁷Report for 1853, p. 6.

²⁸Act No. 62 of 1853.

again proposed that the legislature change the method of apportioning the income from the primary school fund. He advocated apportioning the income to the townships by the prevailing plan, that is, the number of census children in the township; but when apportioning to the districts to change the basis to that of "personal daily attendance of the scholars in the schools."²⁹ By so doing, as he said in 1852, the number attending "Select Schools" would be lessened and thousands not to be found now in any school would betake themselves to school. The legislature took no action.

Ira Mayhew was elected to the office of state superintendent of public instruction in 1853. In his first report after accepting office he stated in no uncertain language his opinion on the "free school" proposition. They were not free. His predecessor in office, it will be remembered, had made it apparent by a certain grouping of figures and a peculiar logic that they were free. Superintendent Mayhew showed that the possible legal amount to be raised was \$450,000 which, if available, would maintain the schools without tuition charge for the full three months. But was this money available? It was not. Nearly one-half of this estimated amount was to be raised by a voluntary tax. Not more than fifty per cent of this possible revenue came into the district treasury. Even the mill tax was not levied by many of the supervisors.

The Superintendent then asked the legislature to provide the means for maintaining the schools for the legal term of three months and require, actually require,

²⁹Report for 1854, p. 10.

that the districts fulfill their legal obligations. This could be done if the mill and the district tax were doubled. He so recommended. The legislature took no action.³⁰

In the report for 1858 Superintendent Mayhew referred to the statement made above and renewed the recommendations previously made, emphasizing particularly that the one mill tax should be changed to a two mill tax. The legislature in 1859 (John M. Gregory, Superintendent) passed such an act but at the same time changed the method of apportioning the avails by returning to each district the amount collected in the district instead of distributing the total avails in proportion to the number of children in the respective districts.³¹ The latter method of apportionment had been criticized, but, unsatisfactory as it was, Superintendent Gregory held that the new method was worse. He felt that the demands of education in a district were not in proportion to the taxable property of the district but to the number of children living there. It was pointed out that a district might have few children but a large territory; such a district raised more money than it needed "while the populous village district, crowded with children suffers from want of means to support its Schools."³²

The reports from the townships and cities showed that 70 out of 628 were entirely free from the "obnoxious rate bill"; in terms of school districts approximately one-third were free from tuition charge. The

³⁰Report for 1856, pp. 21 ff. See Appendix "A".

³¹Act No. 247 of 1859.

³²Report for 1859, p. 19.

law of 1859 permitting the formation of union school districts and establishing high schools also authorized the district to make the union school free by district tax if the voters so desired. Nearly all of them did so. The Superintendent said that now with the added mill—"It is evident . . . that we are rapidly approximating the requirement for free schools prescribed by the State Constitution."³³

In 1860 Superintendent Gregory again renewed the attack upon the method of apportioning the mill tax. As it then stood, he declared, the two mill tax was nothing more than a district tax for the money was returned to the unit in which it was levied. In his discussion he came so near to suggesting a method of distribution that has been formulated and adopted comparatively recently by several states that it seems worth while to give his words:

The former plan of distributing the proceeds of the mill tax to the districts, in proportion to the number of children to be educated, was better, but even this failed to meet equally the wants of the districts, since the expenses of the schools are never in the direct ratio of the number of children. The district with fifteen scholars must have one teacher, while the district with fifty wants no more than one. It is true that the former may get its teacher for less wages, having less work to do; but the ratio of the wages in the two districts will never be as fifteen to fifty. Were it possible to make our districts nearly equal in population, then an apportionment on the scholar would afford equal aid to each; but such an arrangement of districts is simply impossible.³⁴

Trembling on the verge of a discovery he then passed

³³*Ibid*, 18.

³⁴Report for 1860, p. 16.

on to recommend a method similar to that used in New York, namely, dividing one-half of the two mill tax equally among the districts without reference to their size or population, the remaining one-half to be apportioned according to population or the number of children of school age. This method he unhesitatingly recommended to the legislature for adoption. The legislature took no action.

The reports for the year show that fifty-seven per cent of the districts made use of the rate bill and that fourteen per cent of the teachers' wages came from that source.

Two years later, 1862, Superintendent Gregory again called the attention of the legislature to the faulty method of apportionment in use. Though forty-four per cent of the districts made use of rate bills, yet but nine per cent of the teachers' wages was raised by that method. The total resources for the payment of the teachers, exclusive of rate bills, lacked but \$20,060.36 of the amount required to make all the schools in the state free for six months. The rate bill amounted to \$43,202.76 or over fifty per cent more than was necessary to meet the deficiency—this was due to the bad method of apportionment:

And in the light of these facts, the question now rises impressively before us, HAS NOT THE TIME COME TO PUT THE CONSTITUTION IN FORCE, and require every district in the state to keep its school open three months in the year "without charge for tuition"? Ought not the Legislature now to obey the organic law of the State; and, having provided means for the support of Free Schools, ought it not to decree that each district must henceforth furnish free instruction for

all its children three months in each year, under penalty of forfeiture of its share of the public school funds?

The long array of unanswerable arguments in favor of free schools, drawn from the rights of childhood to education, and the duty and the right of the State to educate its future citizens, need not be re-urged here. The doctrine of free schools is too well settled to require any new defence.³⁵

The statistics of the following year showed that without the rate bill the sum available for teachers' wages was \$7,154.90 more than was paid the teachers. That is to say, every school in Michigan might have been free for the entire time it was taught had the money been divided on a more rational basis, yet forty per cent of the districts assessed rate bills to the amount of \$41,200.54.

The report for the year 1860 evidently made an impression on the legislature. The education committees of both branches approved a plan which divided one-half the proceeds of the two mill tax among the several districts in each township without regard to size or population; the other half to be apportioned according to the number of children between the ages of five and twenty—exactly what Superintendent Gregory had previously recommended. It failed to become a law.

In 1864 Superintendent Gregory said:

I have repeatedly urged several important and much needed reforms in the school system of the State. Why these reforms have not been made it is difficult to see. Demanded in many cases by the voice of the people, approved by all sound educational authorities, tested and found valuable in other States, ably urged with sound unanswerable arguments, they have been

³⁵Report for 1862, pp. 82-83.

rejected by our Legislature without one sound objection being urged against them, and sometimes on pretenses as frivolous as they were foreign.⁸⁶

And again he asked that the method of apportionment be changed in case the district system were retained. But, he said, the problem might readily be solved by instituting the township system which he had repeatedly urged and now urged again. The legislature took no action.

Superintendent Hosford took office in 1865. His first two reports are silent on the topic of school support. In 1867 he stated that

The number of districts having rate bills, was 2480; or 180 more than half. Still it was twenty-three less than the previous year, may it grow small by rapid degrees and beautifully less, until its proportions are perfected in annihilation.

Apparently during these years a summation of stimuli was going on for he broke out in his report for 1868 with twenty pages of arguments for free schools, his own and those gathered from the Report of the Connecticut Board of Education, the message of Governor Fenton of New York, and from replies to a questionnaire sent to superintendents of public instruction in northern and western states all of whom favored free schools.

The legislature was convinced that its time had come and accordingly enacted:

Sec. 24. They (the qualified voters) shall also determine, at such annual meeting, the length of time a school shall be taught in their district during the ensuing year, which shall not be less than nine months in districts having eight hundred children over

⁸⁶Report for 1864, pp. 7-8.

five and under twenty years of age, and not less than five months in districts having from thirty to eight hundred children of like age, nor less than three months in all other districts, on pain of forfeiture of their share of the two mill tax and primary school funds and it shall be the *duty of the district board* to estimate the amount necessary to be raised, in addition to other school funds, for the entire support of such school . . . and the same shall be levied, collected, and returned in the same manner as township taxes.³⁷

In commenting on this law the superintendent stated that the "districts may vote to have as much more school as they choose, but whatever they have, there can be no longer a rate bill."

In 1870 the legal sources of school support were:

1. The interest from the Primary School Fund.
2. The two mill tax.
3. District taxes for teachers' wages, school-house repairs, purchasing or building a school-house, providing the necessary appendages (tables, desks, chairs, brooms, etc.), discharge of any lawful debts or liabilities, and school supplies for indigent children.
4. Non-resident tuition.

The common or primary schools were then free and that particular problem no longer rises to trouble future superintendents of public instruction. We may now turn to another problem of support—that of schools giving instruction in subjects beyond the scope of the common schools.

In the school system as organized under the law of 1837 provision was made for a university and its branches and a system of primary or common schools.

³⁷Sec. 24, Primary School Law, Laws of 1869.

The regents of the university and the superintendent of public instruction were directed by the legislature to establish branches in such places as the legislature might authorize. The branches were to stand between the university and the common schools with one of their functions to prepare pupils for entrance to the university. The maintenance of these branches proved too much for the slender income of the university fund and they were definitely abandoned by the parent institution in 1847. This left a gap in the system which the legislature did not close.

In 1843, following the special enactment for Detroit in 1842, permission was given by the legislature for the organization of union schools by joining two or more districts. In the report issued directly after the action by the board of regents, Superintendent Mayhew made the statement:

Union schools should be established at the earliest practicable period, in every county of this state, and in all the principal villages, in which students may qualify themselves for the University. Union schools constitute the only reliable connecting link between the primary school and the State University.³⁸

In 1859 the legislature authorized graded or union school districts to establish high school departments in their union schools. Permission was also given to the district to vote a district tax for the support of this type of school at its annual meeting. Such a school also, of course, received the apportionment of the mill tax and of the interest from the primary school fund to aid in its support.³⁹

³⁸Report for 1848, p. 102.

³⁹Secs. 147, 150, 151, Laws of 1859.

Knowing, as we do, the attitude taken toward supporting the common schools by taxation it is not surprising that the high school department should have made numerous enemies among the tax payers. The first superintendent of public instruction to take cognizance of this condition was Superintendent Briggs in his report for 1872. As stated by him the arguments against the high school were as follows:

1. There is an inviolable Primary School Fund, and an inviolable University Fund. The time honored subjects of the primary schools are: Orthography, Reading, Writing, Grammar, Geography, and Arithmetic. All other education is imposed on the University Fund. The income from the one cannot be diverted to perform the work of the other. Hence the Primary School Fund is being applied illegally which is a breach of faith.

2. The legislature has no power to authorize a local tax for the support of such schools for it thereby creates a special corporation outside of that required by the constitution. Special corporations are forbidden for any but municipal purposes and school purposes are not municipal.

3. The law contemplates that such schools should be self-supporting by tuition charges.

Superintendent Briggs' reaction to these criticisms was in part as follows:

If these statements were mere rumors or complaints made by thoughtless men, who were dissatisfied with the tax they had to pay, they would not be worthy of the least notice; but since they come from men of character and standing, who have a reputation as lawyers, and who profess to have given the subject careful consideration, I have deemed it best to call the attention of the Legislature to the subject. If the Legislature has no power to authorize the establishing and maintaining of high school departments in our graded schools, it is high time that it was known, that the power may be given.

I do not propose to discuss this question, as this is not the place to do so; nor do I propose to express even an opinion in regard to it. All must see that it is a question vital to the interests of our schools, and indeed to the whole school system. To attempt to make the high school department self-sustaining by charging tuition would be to abolish them. Our graded schools, without the high school, would soon fall back to the condition of the district schools, and the whole system would be shorn of its unity and glory.

I am satisfied that the founders of the system designed to have this link supplied, and expected that these schools would form a part of the general system.⁴⁰

The question was settled by the decision of the Supreme Court of Michigan in 1874 which upheld the action of the legislature in every detail, thus extending Michigan's system of free schools up to the University. Further development concerns itself only with designating the source from which money shall be supplied to meet the expense of extending the privilege of education in various ways.

The following sources of public school support and the various types of educational activity so supported are given in the *Revision of the General School Laws of 1921*:

A. Income on Primary School Interest Fund:

(22) The superintendent of public instruction is directed to apportion the income from the primary school interest fund throughout the state on the basis of the number of children over five and under twenty years of age.

The attitude of earlier superintendents with respect to the apportionment of the proceeds of this source of support has been stated. Superintendent Hammond in

⁴⁰Report for 1872, pp. 15-16.

1897 called the attention of the legislature to the faulty method of distributing the income. He recommended that the apportionment be made on the basis of children actually attending school for at least five months during the school year.⁴¹ Superintendent Fall in 1903 concurred with this point of view.⁴² Superintendent Wright in 1907 merely mentions the point—"A law should be enacted providing for the equitable distribution of the primary school interest fund". Two years later, following the lead of former superintendents, he proposed that the income be distributed according to the census as customary, but that districts with a large amount of money on hand be deprived of their apportionment until such time as the amount on hand should be reasonably decreased. Statistics were presented in a convincing way to show how inequitably the time-honored method of apportionment worked. In the following year his recommendation was carried out by the following enactment:

(11) If any school district shall on the second Monday in July of any school year, have on hand from its apportionment of the primary school interest fund an amount sufficient to pay its teachers for the next ensuing two years as determined by the pay roll for the last school year the children of such district shall not be counted in making the next apportionment of public money; nor shall they be counted until the amount on hand is reduced to an amount insufficient to pay teachers' wages for the next two years.⁴³

Superintendent Johnson in 1920 criticised the method of apportioning the primary school interest fund on

⁴¹Report for 1897, pp. 15-16. Figures in parentheses (as above) refer to sections of the 1921 revision of the school laws.

⁴²Report for 1903, p. 69.

⁴³Act No. 1 of 1911.

the census basis. In 1923 he sponsored a bill which aimed to equalize the burden of school support so far as a better method of distributing this fund could make such a task possible. In this bill the inequality of ability to support schools on the basis of assessed valuation was shown, since the educational load, so to say, of every \$100,000 of assessed valuation varied in different districts.

Instead, therefore, of apportioning primary school interest money in proportion to school census only, let it be apportioned to each district in proportion to the census enrollment per 100,000 of valuation of each district. The number of enrolled pupils for which each 100,000 dollars of equalized valuation must provide primary school facilities will then be greatly equalized.

Though the legislature showed considerable interest in the bill yet it failed to pass.

B. The mill tax.

In his report for 1903 Superintendent Fall asked for a repeal of the mill tax on the ground that it was no longer needed for school support. The proceeds of this tax might legally be used only for paying teachers' wages, tuition, or the transportation of pupils and since the amount collected was often more than was necessary to meet these charges many supervisors violated the law by not assessing the tax.⁴⁴ The general spirit of his recommendation was carried out.

(78) Supervisors are directed to assess a tax of one mill on each dollar of taxable property in the township and return the avails to the districts in which the tax was collected. If any district shall have on hand sufficient money to meet the teachers' wages for the ensuing year, the tax shall not be assessed.

⁴⁴Report for 1903, p. 70.

C. District, township, county taxes and state aid.

(45) To purchase or lease a site or to build, hire, or purchase a school building. Districts with less than ten children between five and twenty years of age may raise not more than \$250; districts with from ten to thirty children, \$500; districts with thirty to fifty children, \$1000. To determine the amount of money to be raised by tax for school purposes. This tax and the mill tax to be known as the "general fund."

In addition to the general fund there shall be an annual appropriation from the state treasury of \$200 to each district maintaining a one room school for nine months when the cost of maintaining the school for seven months requires a levy of \$12 or more per \$1000 valuation.⁴⁵

(61) To purchase by direction of the district board such text books as may be necessary for the use of children whose parents are not able to furnish the same.

(229) By majority vote to authorize the school board or district board to furnish free text books; such charge to be met by local tax.⁴⁶

(322) To levy by direction of the district board a tax sufficient to pay the tuition to any approved high school of such children in the district as have completed the studies of the eight grades; and may vote a tax to cover the daily transportation of such children.⁴⁷

(526) To pay from the general fund to some other district the tuition of pupils who have not completed eight grades of work, but who are nearer to some other schoolhouse than their own.⁴⁸

(527-8) To pay out of the general fund such sums as are necessary to enable the children of indigent parents to attend school during the entire school year. Such sum not to exceed

⁴⁵Act No. 35 of 1907.

⁴⁶Act No. 147 of 1889.

⁴⁷Act No. 65 of 1909.

⁴⁸Act No. 21 of 1913.

three dollars a week for one child nor more than six dollars a week for the children of any one family.⁴⁹

(549) The board of supervisors are directed to lay a county tax for the support of county schools of agriculture. The state apportions to each school a sum equal to two-thirds of the amount actually expended for maintaining the school. The sum apportioned is not to exceed four thousand dollars for any one school.⁵⁰

These latter items are merely extensions of the principle of free schools for all which the earlier superintendents worked for and saw enacted into practice in 1869. There is nothing in the reports to show that these extensions of educational privileges for normal children at the cost of the community were a part of a constructive program. It is doubtless true, however, that the various superintendents of public instruction used whatever influence they may have had with the education committee of the legislature to further the passage of such legislation.

Growing out of the attention paid to the rural schools problem by various superintendents from the time of Superintendent Comstock in 1844 came the law of 1891 giving permission to districts in the upper Peninsula to form township districts.⁵¹ This was followed from time to time by special legislation for certain districts in the Lower Peninsula; but it was not until 1909⁵² that the legislature could be persuaded to enact an optional law for the entire state. The problem of support, naturally, was but incidental to the general purposes of the Act

⁴⁹Act No. 198 of 1911.

⁵⁰Act No. 35 of 1907.

⁵¹Act No. 176 of 1891.

⁵²Act No. 117 of 1909.

for the principle of taxation for school purposes was fully established.

In the matter of support of township schools the legislature enacted:

(312) That the board of education vote such taxes as were necessary to maintain the school and if no high school were established to raise by tax in the township such sum as might be necessary to pay the tuition of children in such township to high schools already established.⁵³

Likewise out of this general policy grew more or less distinctive schools for which it was necessary to legislate the method of support:

(512, 515) Upon vote of the qualified electors of a township not having within its limits an incorporated village or city a rural high school may be established and maintained by a tax spread upon the tax roll the same as other district taxes.⁵⁴

(559, 567, 572) Three or more rural schools which have been or may be consolidated and in which the teaching of agriculture, manual training, and home economics is or may be taught shall be called a rural agricultural school and under certain provisions entitled to state aid. Transportation of pupils must be provided for by the board of education. As state aid to assist in the maintenance of these schools each is entitled to receive four hundred dollars for each vehicle used in transportation and in addition the annual sum of one thousand dollars to be paid from the state treasury.⁵⁵

And to complete the survey:

(538) Any school district with the consent of the majority of the qualified voters may establish and maintain by a general tax on the taxable property of the district trade, industrial, marine, vocational, and manual training schools and school gymnasiums.⁵⁶

⁵³Act No. 133 of 1921.

⁵⁴Act No. 144 of 1901.

⁵⁵Act No. 226 of 1917.

⁵⁶Act No. 22 of 1911.

(582, 586) Provisions were enacted by the Sixty-fourth Congress for establishing and maintaining vocational schools under certain conditions. Such schools are entitled to a federal grant, and from the state treasury one-half the amount granted by the federal government.⁵⁷

Districts establishing and maintaining day schools or classes for the deaf and dumb, blind, and crippled children receive aid from the state up to a maximum of \$200 per pupil.⁵⁸

The problem raised by Superintendent Sawyer in 1842 is still with us, that is, the question of equitable distribution of school funds. The following summary gives us an idea of what the twenty-three state superintendents from Sawyer to Johnson inclusive conceived it their duty to do in this respect. A simple matter of arithmetic shows that sixteen had no convictions on the matter worth reporting to the legislature though the remaining seven considered the matter of apportionment of the income from the primary school interest fund, or the disposition of the mill tax, or both, of highest importance to the welfare of the schools.

| | | |
|----------|------|---|
| Sawyer | 1842 | Advocated a mill tax for school support. Criticized census method of apportioning the school fund. Advocated actual school attendance as most equitable basis for division of the public money. |
| Shearman | 1850 | Advocated two mill tax with possible increase. School funds should be apportioned on an attendance rather than census basis. |
| Gregory | 1859 | Criticised the return of the mill tax avails to the source of taxation—some have more than they need, others less. |

⁵⁷Act No. 149 of 1919.

⁵⁸Acts No. 122, No. 313 of 1923.

| | | |
|------------------------------------|------------|--|
| | 1860 | Mill tax nothing but a district tax. Teacher the real unit of cost. Advocated that one-half the avails go to the districts and one-half be apportioned on the census basis. |
| | 1862 | Again criticised the method of distributing mill tax avails. |
| | 1863 | Method advocated in 1860 failed to pass. |
| | 1864 | Asked for change in distributing mill tax avails. (No fault found at any time with the method of apportioning the income from the common school fund.) |
| Hammond | 1897 | Criticised the method of apportioning the income from the school fund. No criticism of the method of disposing of the mill tax. |
| Fall | 1903 | Criticised method of apportioning the income from the school fund. Asked that the mill tax provision be repealed—unequal in its results and no longer needed. |
| Wright | 1907 | Criticised method of apportioning the income from the school fund. In certain cases the mill tax should no longer be levied. |
| Johnson | 1920 | Criticised census basis as method of distribution—districts with least means receive least aid by such a method. Advocated larger unit of taxation. School costs and valuation have not increased proportionately. |
| Cost per capita Valuation per | | |
| Year | enrollment | capita enrollment |
| 1890 | \$11.25 | \$2,400 |
| 1900 | 15.61 | 2,605 |
| 1910 | 26.95 | 2,948 |
| 1915 | 37.42 | 4,476 |
| 1920 | 55.95 | 6,407 |

The present method of apportioning the income from the primary school interest fund as pointed out by

Superintendent Sawyer as far back as 1842 has no reference whatever to local needs and local effort. "Placing a premium on educational effort ought to be made a prominent feature of any state policy for the apportionment of state funds." But actually by the present plan of apportionment many districts are entitled to so much money that they are unable to use it under the legal limitations. Merely to with-hold money from such districts (II)⁵⁹ is a makeshift and does not give any fundamental solution of the problem.

Large valuation and small expense have brought about the present unfortunate policy of dealing with the mill tax (78). The present law serves only to withdraw a part of the wealth of the state from bearing its due share of supporting schools. Such a policy is absurd in the face of the fact that some districts are exceedingly hard-pressed to maintain even a poor school. To be sure the state comes to the aid of the poorer districts (45) but in the report of Superintendent Johnson for 1920, which gives the latest available statistics, the average rate per \$1000 in city districts for all school purposes was \$7.30. In only thirteen out of fifty-seven districts for which these data are given does the tax rate equal or exceed what the one room school district must raise (45) before aid is given.

Judging from our only source of information—the reports—Michigan's superintendents of public instruction have been lamentably lacking in a real continuous, constructive financial policy for the support of the

⁵⁹Figures in parentheses refer to sections of the 1921 revision of the school laws as summarized on pp. 60 ff.

public schools. Some have advocated one thing, others another; and the majority, apparently, did not consider it. Superintendent Johnson is absolutely right in insisting upon a more equitable method of apportioning the income from the primary school interest fund; also in advocating a change from the present method of levying taxes on the property of the smallest unit of the school system to the largest, that is to say, the state. If he proves unsuccessful in getting favorable legislation, it is heartily to be desired that it will not be five, ten, or fifteen years before some successor in the office will take up the fight. There is need for a fine type of research, for publicity, and for a continuous constructive policy in this function of the superintendent's office. Adequately prepared teachers, responsible supervision, desirable school buildings and grounds, well equipped school rooms wait upon a thorough-going revision of our present methods of school support.

THE SCHOOL PLANT

In the report for 1837 Superintendent Pierce held that the school house should be placed in the most healthful and attractive spot in the district with due regard, of course, to the convenience of the pupils. The building should be spacious, warm, and well ventilated; there should be an enclosed yard suitable for proper exercise:

It should be an enchanting spot, sheltered from the cold blasts of winter and the summer's scorching sun; a place of love, of kindness and good will; and not a place of whips, consternation, despotism and terror.⁶⁰

⁶⁰Report for 1837, p. 23.

That these were not the actual conditions is implied. Superintendent Sawyer five years later gives us a glimpse of the real conditions:

But few buildings are what they should be, and a great many are worse than none. Rather than imprison a child in some of them, each parent would do well to convert a portion of his own comfortable dwelling or barn into a school house and then hire a teacher to go from place to place like the strolling player of other and darker days. Better erect a booth near the woods, and educate in that, than plunge them into the gloom of more than one schoolhouse that stands upon the public road.⁶¹

Certain indispensable features connected with every good school house were mentioned. These were:

1. Healthy and quiet location.
2. With respect to material and construction a school house may be (if care is taken) neat, comfortable, and healthful. Timbers, boards, and bricks should be carefully selected if the building is to be of these materials.
3. Lighting must be adequate. One window in a school house is not sufficient. When desks are so arranged that the pupils face the wall the bottom of the window should be higher than their heads.
4. Proper facilities for ventilation must be provided; cracks between logs, space between windows and casing are not sufficient means of providing fresh air. Lower the upper sash. The minimum cubage for each child should be one hundred and fifty feet.

⁶¹*Joint Documents*, 1842, p. 250. Until 1915 the superintendents of public instruction were interested in the one and two-room district schoolhouses and did not greatly concern themselves with the buildings in the larger centers. For the development of the school plant in Detroit see A. B. Moehlman, *The History of Education in Detroit*; and for the development of the school plant in connection with changes in school organization in Detroit, see C. L. Spain, *The Platoon School*.

5. Seating arrangement should be such that children face the teacher. Each child should have a seat for himself. Every seat should have a back which will accommodate the natural curve of the body.

6. Heating by stoves is better than relying on a fire place. The smoke pipe, if it extends across the room, should be above an aisle and high enough to prevent undue radiation upon the pupils' heads. A warm air furnace is the best heating medium and is used quite commonly in the eastern states.

7. A blackboard should be provided, also town, county and state maps.

For the benefit of the legislature the Superintendent gathered some information on "fair specimens of our school house architecture." The report showed that the majority of school houses were log cabins costing from \$50 to \$100. The frame buildings ranged in cost from \$100 to \$500. The most frequent sizes were 18 by 20, and 24 by 26. Stoves were in general use and the windows were depended upon to give proper ventilation. Quite commonly boards were nailed to the wall for desks. The seats for use with the desks were made from log slabs and were without backs. The desks were used by the older pupils while the younger ones' sat on benches for the most part without backs; and desks for them were as infrequent as backs for the seats.

It seems quite certain that the conception of a suitable school plant as outlined by Superintendent Sawyer was much in advance of prevailing conditions.

The House Journal of 1846 shows that a bill was reported "to provide for procuring the most approved

plans for building school houses in the State of Michigan." The bill failed to pass.⁶²

Superintendent Mayhew in 1847 interested himself in the question of the school plants. He stated the actual conditions that prevailed and suggested a number of decided improvements. He found that the usual location of the school house was on one corner of the highway; the site being chosen with no regard for health, taste, or comfort of teacher or pupils. There seldom were trees and the school lot was very small and unfenced. One need not go far to find such school houses in the year 1926.

The Superintendent considered himself to be an authority on heating and ventilation. Therefore he gave a considerable amount of space to the discussion of that subject.

He said that the school rooms were usually not larger than twenty by twenty-four feet and seven feet high. Such rooms ordinarily had at least forty-five pupils in the winter term and frequently run as high as one hundred. Taking the smaller number, forty-five, the number of cubic feet of air for each was slightly under seventy-five which was insufficient for healthful respiration. He wrote at length on experiments which he had made but the practical recommendations may be resolved to the conclusion that it is better to open the windows from the top rather than the bottom for purpose of changing the air. This recommendation applied to the average school house as it was.

Floor plans of buildings to seat seventy-six, sixty,

⁶²*House Journal*, 1846, p. 270.

and one hundred and forty-four pupils are given. As the inside dimensions only of the rooms are stated, it is not possible to determine anything but the floor space for each pupil. This runs at approximately fourteen square feet for the first plan, seventeen for the second, and fifteen for the third. All rooms are lighted from two sides; the windows are not grouped. Provision is made for bringing fresh air through a tube opening under a jacketed stove. At the end of the room opposite the stove a ventilator is placed for carrying the impure air into the attic or the chimney. Long desks are specified and C. C. Mott's patent cast iron revolving pivot chairs are recommended. A teacher's desk and chair, shelves for the library and apparatus, blackboard, water pail, cup, broom, evaporating dish for the stove, thermometer, shovel and tongs, clock, and ash pail complete the furnishings. In addition there should be a good well, wood house, ash house, and two outhouses separated by a high close fence:

In conclusion, on this subject, I would say, if there is one house in the district more pleasantly located, more comfortably constructed, better warmed, and more inviting in its general appearance, and more elevating in its influence than any other, that house should be the School House.⁶³

Referring to the subject again in 1857 Superintendent Mayhew stated that in many places they were discarding hot air furnaces and returning to stoves. In his opinion neither was a good method of warming a room. Steam heating furnaces were also being introduced but though they did not vitiate the air yet they provided no

⁶³Report for 1847, pp. 110-144.

means of ventilation and were objectionable on account of their leaking and "the cracking noises the pipes emit." He was an advocate of the Perkins' Steam Heating Air Furnace which he believed to be "the best method of warming and ventilating known to the civilized world." He also wrote in this connection that of the various caps designed for chimneys and ventilators with which he was acquainted, the best was "Mayhew's Self-Adjusting Smoke, Storm and Ventilating Chimney Cap, patented by Ira Mayhew of Albion, Michigan." This cap, he had found, worked well with the Perkins' Furnace.

Introductory to his discussion of school apparatus Superintendent Mayhew said:

In this life, *the senses* constitute the great medium of communicating knowledge to the human mind; and especially is this true of *sight* and *hearing*. While, then, the skillful parent or teacher addresses the minds of his children through the sense of *hearing*, he will greatly increase the interest of his young learners by addressing, also, their sense of *sight*, through which the strongest impression can be made upon the mind.

Following this he presented cuts and descriptions of apparatus furnished by the Holbrook School Apparatus Company. Among these articles are a numeral frame, the various types of geometrical solids, terrestrial globe, tellurian, planetarium, celestial sphere, and drawing slate.

Superintendent Gregory in 1859 found that about one school in ten had outline maps and still fewer had any apparatus. He recommended that the law authorizing districts having more than fifty pupils to raise annually a sum not to exceed twenty dollars for maps and appa-

ratus be changed so that any school district might buy these accessories. He also recommended "that in all school districts hereafter to be constructed, a small room be provided for the district library, and for the safe-keeping of apparatus."⁶⁴

In 1862 Superintendent Gregory outlined at considerable length his ideas with respect to school architecture. One of the essential conditions of a good school, he held, was a good school building. Many school buildings were mere makeshifts evidently because the district cared for nothing better. Others were unsatisfactory because of poor planning. The districts had spent money enough to have had a good building had they been well advised. To remedy this condition he asked the Legislature to make an appropriation for the purpose of printing plans and specifications for the various classes of public schools in the state. And, further, he vigorously advocated a law that would compel the district board to submit building plans to a "competent tribunal" before entering upon the work of construction.⁶⁵

A joint resolution of the legislature in 1863 reads as follows:

Resolved, That the Superintendent of Public Instruction be requested to prepare plans and specifications for schoolhouses adapted to the wants of the school districts of the State, and publish the same in his next Annual Report, or in the next published edition of the School Laws.

The plans accordingly appear in the report and school laws for that year. Of the following data the first two

⁶⁴Report for 1859, pp. 37-38.

⁶⁵Report for 1862, pp. 89-91. See Appendix "B".

items refer to plans for a one room country school and the last two refer to plans for a two room or graded school building.

| Size of Room | Number of Pupils | Light Area | Floor Area per Pupil | Cubage | Cubage per Pupil |
|--------------|------------------|------------|----------------------|--------------|------------------|
| 24x24x10 | 36 | 67 sq. ft. | 16 sq. ft. | 5760 cu. ft. | 160 cu.ft. |
| 29x29x13 | 74 | 120 | 11 | 10933 | 147 |
| 34x25x13 | 60 | 133 | 14 | 11050 | 184 |
| 28x29x13 | 70 | 97 | 11 | 10566 | 150 |

In the plans prepared for this book special care was taken, so it is stated, to provide for lighting the rooms by windows in the rear and both sides. The windows were planned to reach as near to the ceiling as possible. In no case were they closely grouped. With the exception of the height of the windows, the specifications for lighting violate all present standards.

No matter what the heating plant might be it was advised that there should be flues opening near the floor to carry off the impure air. In most of the plans the flues were built in the chimney to get the benefit of the draft. Stoves with an air duct opening under them were recommended but wherever it could be afforded it was suggested that the Chilsen portable furnace or the Rutton air warmer be considered. These heaters were provided with flues which carried the cold air through the stove and were thought to be more efficient than the ordinary heating stove.

Superintendent Hosford repeatedly called attention to the necessity of properly ventilating the schoolroom but added nothing to what had already been suggested in earlier reports. But, in order that the plans drawn

by the various superintendents may not mislead us into thinking that the school plant had been greatly changed, it may be wise to note Superintendent Hosford's description of many Michigan schoolhouses in 1868:

In a schoolroom with ill constructed seats, a mere apology for a table, and a chair to match, a stove broken and ready to tumble down, sifting ashes from each of its numerous crevices every time there is the least jar in the room, with windows calling loudly for the glazier, the walls and ceiling broken and dingy, the whole appearance rude and forbidding, how difficult to keep the pupils from exercising their skill in carving and drawing. These unattractive surroundings have their influence for evil and teach lessons that ought never to be learned.

Most of the schools, he continues, are destitute of blackboards and of even the simplest and cheapest apparatus. Without this material by which the senses of the children may be appealed to one despairs of giving the children proper training.⁶⁶

In his next annual report Superintendent Hosford gave a more complete exposition of his views with respect to suitable district school houses and equipment. There appeared in this report for the first time a cut of an adjustable desk. This type of desk was recommended for district schools since small pupils were ordinarily in attendance during the summer and larger pupils during the winter months. "It is earnestly recommended", he said, "that for any school house above the grade of a log house, the rough, uncouth, backbreaking benches of the past be forever discarded, and their places supplied with the easy tasty furniture from some school manufactory."⁶⁷

⁶⁶Report for 1868, pp. 9-10.

⁶⁷Report for 1869, pp. 14-17. See Appendix "C".

In 1874 information was given by the county superintendents which though incomplete enables us to survey conditions fairly well. In all there were at the time 5679 districts but in no one item in the following data did all county superintendents report. By determining the per cent the results are as follows:

A. 66% of the districts reported had grounds of sufficient size: 90% reported.

B. 38% of the districts reported had grounds that were enclosed and improved: 86% reported.

C. 5% of the districts reported had houses unfit for use: 89% reported.

D. 27% of the districts reported were destitute of suitable toilets: 88% reported.

E. 50% of the districts reported had suitable furniture in good condition: 86% reported.

F. 37% of the districts reported had houses properly warmed and ventilated: 66% reported.

G. 41% of the districts reported had charts, outline maps, etc.: 86% reported.⁶⁸

With respect to construction the schoolhouses of 1875 are reported as 77 per cent frame; 12 per cent brick; 10 per cent log; and 1 per cent stone.

Although the matter of ventilation, school grounds, suitable apparatus and the like is mentioned in a large number of the annual reports, the suggestions offered differ in no essential respect from the views held by the last superintendent quoted. It might be noted, however, that a paper read before the Michigan State Teachers Association in 1882 advocated that schoolrooms be

⁶⁸Report for 1874, pp. lxxvii-lxxviii.

lighted from one side only. This method of lighting, the speaker stated, was urged on the authority of two German specialists, a Dr. Buks and a Dr. Erissman.

The superintendents of public instruction were not entirely agreed on what information was most valuable, hence the first five points, A to E inclusive, were soon dropped out, and it is not until 1888 that data similar to that of F and G are again obtainable.

F. 35% of the districts reported had houses properly warmed and ventilated: 91% reported.

G. 54% of the districts were supplied with a dictionary: 98% reported.

37% of the districts were supplied with maps: 98% reported.

27% of the districts were supplied with globes: 98% reported.⁶⁹

The per cent of frame school houses in 1888 is the same as in 1874, namely, 77. Those built of other material are as follows: 16 per cent brick; 6 per cent log; and 1 per cent stone.

Superintendent Pattengill in 1895 in discussing the topic of school apparatus said:

There is a certain amount of apparatus as essential to the proper and economical conduct of a school as of a farm or shop. During the first year of the present administration of this office, a large number of councils with school officers and patrons was held in all portions of the state; and among the questions discussed at each of these meetings was the question as to what constituted necessary school apparatus. The average of opinion given at these councils was taken and the result expressed in a bill which was made a law by the legislature of '95.

⁶⁹Report for 1888, pp. xc-xcii.

The law referred to states that it shall be the duty of the director of each school district:

Sixth, To provide the necessary appendages for the school-house and keep the room in good condition and repair during the time school shall be taught therein. Necessary appendages within the meaning of the law shall consist of the following articles, to wit: A set of wall maps (the grand division of the United States and Michigan) not exceeding twelve dollars in price; a globe not exceeding eight dollars, a dictionary not exceeding ten dollars; a reading chart not exceeding five dollars, and a case for library books not exceeding ten dollars; also looking-glass, comb, towel, water pail, cup, ash pail, poker, stove shovel, broom, dust pan, duster, wash basin, and soap.⁷⁰

The subject of school architecture was taken up in detail by Superintendent Pattengill in his Report for 1893. He stressed particularly the topics of ventilation, and heating and lighting.⁷¹

In Superintendent Hammond's report for 1897 he added to the above the following suggestions with respect to school grounds:

1. The schoolhouse site should be a high and healthful place.
2. Drinking water should be of undoubted purity.
3. Part of every school ground should be sodded with grass.
4. Every school ground should have some shade trees.
5. The outhouses should always be kept *clean and decent*.
6. Fences should be in good repair.

⁷⁰Act No. 259 of 1895.

⁷¹Report for 1893, pp. 22-23. See Appendix "D".

7. There should be a board or gravel walk from the front gate to the schoolhouse door.

8. There should be some kind of a walk from the schoolhouse door to each outhouse.

The recommendations made in Superintendent Fall's report for 1902 show that the standards of 1893 have undergone some changes. The floor area for each child has been increased from 16 to 25 square feet and provision is to be made for not less than 300 cubic feet of space per child. The fresh air and ventilating flues should be of the same size and for a room 24 x 32 feet should each have an area of 1225 square inches. In the earlier report no mention is made of the size of the room but the statement is made that there should be two fresh air ducts each 6 x 12 inches. The plans given in 1902 show windows on two sides.⁷²

The 1904 report stresses the value of beautifying the school grounds. Superintendent Fall believed that

A trip through the rural school districts of the State will convince the most doubting that one of the chief causes of the decline of the rural school is that the schoolhouse and its grounds are bare, harsh, cheerless, unattractive, and sometimes immodest. To require that eight months in each year be spent amid such surroundings is enough to chill any desire on the part of the child for education and to destroy completely all love for the beautiful. He naturally loves the beautiful, often seeing beauties in nature that are unobserved by the more mature mind and eye. In childhood the mind is impressionable and whether it is realized or not, the discomforts of the average schoolroom, the lack of harmony and beauty in its adornment, the rough and uncouth school grounds and outbuildings, will, consciously or un-

⁷²Report for 1902, pp. 57-78.

consciously, make a deep and lasting impression on the mind and tend to loose habits, a lack of respect for law and the rights of others, and above all a lack of care for the property of the public.⁷³

Cuts are presented in this report showing school grounds before and after being properly laid out and planted. Specimen arrangements for front and corner lots are given and explained by Professor W. J. Beal of the Michigan Agricultural College; he also recommended a list of trees, shrubs, and vines suitable for school ground planting.

In 1912 Superintendent Wright issued Bulletin No. 51 written by Professor C. P. Halligan of the Michigan Agricultural College. In the foreword Superintendent Wright made the following criticisms and suggestions:

We are desirous of a general state-wide movement along the line of improving and beautifying school grounds. The need is evident.

In many cases the school grounds in rural districts are too small. The rural school site should contain at least two acres, allowing room for lawn, playground, school gardens and agricultural experiments. Much can be done, however, to improve even a small plat. Trees, shrubs, plants and vines, *native to the locality*, should be planted. Common shrubs like the sumac, such vines as the woodbine, found in the locality can be transplanted. Shrubs should always be planted in groups not more than eighteen inches apart giving a mass effect. Small groups should contain not less than twelve shrubs; some of the largest groups might contain as many as forty-eight.

The importance of improving the environment in which children are being educated should not be overlooked. A child's school training begins when he reaches the school grounds. Rough, uncouth school grounds will make a deep and lasting im-

⁷³Report for 1904, pp. 27-28.

pression on the mind. The effect of a well-kept plat in any community will be noticeable. It is a matter of concern to the whole district.

Professor Halligan's article dealt with designing the school grounds, presenting typical plans, and directions for planting trees and shrubs with a list of desirable varieties of each.

Superintendent Keeler in 1913, under the head of "Needed Legislation" expressed himself as follows with respect to school buildings:

Millions of dollars are spent annually in this state for new school buildings. The Department of Public Instruction has issued a Manual of Schoolroom Equipment, Improvement and Construction for the use of school officers. But this will not assure that schoolhouses will be properly constructed. It appears, therefore, that the legislature should adopt a carefully worked out building code which will embody the best standards as regards health, sanitation and safety. A state board of expert ability should be created with authority to pass on plans for school buildings before same can be erected. Furthermore, there are now in use many schoolhouses which are unsanitary, unsafe, and unfit in general for school purposes. I recommend that the board mentioned above be also given authority to condemn such buildings and direct their reconstruction.⁷⁴

In 1915 the legislature passed an act requiring that plans for all school buildings and for additions to school buildings, the cost of which shall exceed three hundred dollars, be approved by the superintendent of public instruction; and authorized the condemnation of school houses by him under certain conditions.⁷⁵

In the following year the State Department of Public Instruction was prepared to furnish plans and specifica-

⁷⁴Report for 1913-14, p. 13.

⁷⁵Act No. 17 of 1915.

tions for one and two room rural school buildings upon application of the local authorities. Since few districts will employ an architect and since the plans must be approved by the superintendent of public instruction, the rural school buildings will largely follow the plans and specifications which are provided by the state office.

In 1917 a model school building was erected on the State Fair Grounds, Detroit, after plans and specifications furnished by the Department of Public Instruction. This was called the "Michigan Building" and doubtless represented the best thought of the Department of Public Instruction on this particular problem. The various standards set up were as follows:

Windows should be placed on one side of the room or on one side and the rear. The major part of the light should enter the room so that it passes over the pupil's left shoulder. The minimum amount of light is fixed at twenty per cent of the floor area. Windows must be placed close together and extend up to the ceiling line.

Buildings must be heated and ventilated with an approved basement ventilating furnace, a one room ventilating furnace, or with a direct and indirect steam system.

Aisles on the outside must be thirty inches wide, with a minimum width of seventeen inches between the rows of smallest or No. 5 and No. 6 seats.

With respect to the school yard the general requirements for a standard school are:

1. Ample ground of at least one-half acre.
2. Some trees and shrubs.
3. Good approaches to the house.

4. Two well kept, widely separated outhouses, if indoor chemical toilets are not provided.
5. Convenient fuel house if there is no provision for storage in the basement.

Furnishings and supplies are to include—

1. Desks suitable for children of all ages, properly placed.
2. Good teacher's desk.
3. Good bookcase.
4. A good collection of juvenile books suitable as aids to school work as well as for general reading.
5. Set of good maps, a globe, dictionary, thermometer, sanitary water supply.⁷⁶

The idea of putting the stamp of state approval on such schools as meet certain definite requirements and designating them as "Standard Schools" originated with Superintendent Keeler. The specifications with respect to building and site as just stated, however, are but two of several that must be met. Approximately only five per cent of the rural schools of Michigan meet the "Standard" requirements. Statistics from 1915 to 1919, the last date of available data, show that 281 one and two room buildings have been erected. These buildings necessarily meet the standard requirements with respect to architectural features, heating, ventilating, and lighting since the plans must be approved by the state department. This excellent requirement, though a number of districts do not like it, will in the course of time work great and desirable changes in the school buildings of Michigan.

⁷⁶Report for 1917-18, pp. 142 ff.

Superintendent Keeler in 1917 spoke before the Superintendent's Section of the N.E.A. on the topic—"Standards in School Architecture". A few excerpts taken here and there give us his general point of view and indicate the lines along which, under the law of 1915, he would influence Michigan practice:

I shall indicate in general what qualities are essential in good school buildings and I shall try to suggest, also, some vital matters which should be observed in the procedure of erecting them.

* * * * *

A building which shall house a modern school is a complex structure and it is a GOOD schoolhouse in proportion as it permits a good school well to function in it.

* * * * *

A good schoolhouse must commend itself for its utility—first of all it must be a good place to teach school in. Not only should the building serve the traditional functions of a school but it must also provide facilities for physical training and for the activities of the community which are more or less of a social nature. I am happy to say that in my own state no building of any account has been erected in the last years which has not provided for all of these things.

* * * * *

Having ascertained the merits of the building as to its utility, I would at once inquire as to its provisions for health and sanitation.

* * * * *

Hand in hand with proper hygienic conditions I should look for the arrangements which insure safety. I believe that except in large cities where school grounds are small and expensive, we shall see less and less of school buildings that are more than two stories high.

* * * * *

A building which is serviceable, hygienic and safe is, indeed, a good school building—better perhaps than most buildings now in use. But there is a fourth feature which I think of more importance than present practice would indicate—schools should be beautiful.

* * * * *

The last test I would apply is economy, the item which usually receives first consideration. Competition has developed a type of building which gives maximum school room area for the minimum construction material. Commendable progress has been made in this department of school building which can be expressed directly in dollars and cents.

* * * * *

Some states, and my own is one of them, place the authority to approve building plans and to condemn unfit buildings, with some state authority—usually the state department of public instruction—leaving to the discretion of such authority what the requirements shall be. I favor this plan.⁷⁷

Under date of February 1, 1923 Superintendent Johnson issued Bulletin Number 52 on *School Buildings, Equipment, and Grounds* with the following foreword:

For a number of years the laws of this state have required the approval of all building plans for school buildings before it is legal for boards of education to spend any money in their construction. As a result of the several years of experience in this work the Department has prepared this code. Architects, engineers, schoolmen, and builders have been freely consulted in its preparation. We believe that the result of our work should be of great assistance to those contemplating building. It is given to you with the sincerest hope that it will more than justify the work done upon it.

This bulletin of two hundred forty-two pages gives detailed information under the following heads:

Types of buildings

⁷⁷N. E. A. *Proceedings*, 1917, pp. 708 ff.

General construction of school building
 Standards and arrangement of school buildings
 Lighting
 Heating and ventilating
 Furniture and equipment for different types of school work
 Plumbing
 Electric service
 School sites
 Illustrations of typical school buildings in Michigan.

The relation of the superintendents of public instruction to the school plant is given below in outline:

| | | |
|------------|------|--|
| Pierce | 1837 | Suggestions as to site and character of school buildings. |
| Sawyer | 1842 | Desirable standards to be incorporated. |
| Mayhew | 1847 | Heating and ventilating standards and methods of attainment. |
| | 1857 | Desirable school apparatus. |
| Gregory | 1859 | Recommended that districts having less than 50 pupils be authorized to raise tax for purchase of apparatus |
| | 1862 | Recommended that districts be furnished with plans and specifications for schoolhouses; also that they be obliged to have plans approved by competent authority before beginning the work of construction. |
| | 1863 | Legislature requested the superintendent of public instruction to prepare plans and specifications of district schoolhouses and publish same in his reports. |
| Hosford | 1869 | Gave details to be embodied in a desirable district schoolhouse. |
| Pattengill | 1895 | Legislature made it the duty of the director of the district to supply certain specified school appendages. |
| | | Gave specifications with respect to school |

| | | |
|--|------|--|
| | | architecture and proper heating, lighting, and ventilation. |
| Fall | 1904 | Stressed the value of beautiful school grounds and gave plans. |
| Wright | 1912 | Bulletin on beautifying school grounds. |
| Keeler | 1913 | Recommended that all building plans be passed upon by a state board of experts before construction should begin. |
| | 1915 | Legislature enacted as above and put power in the Department of Public Instruction. |
| | 1917 | "Michigan Building" with plans, specifications, and standards. |
| Johnson | 1923 | Detailed building code. |
| Bulletins issued by the Department of Public Instruction since 1901 concerned with the school plant and equipment: | | |
| Fall | 1901 | A study of school grounds for the schools of Michigan. |
| | 1903 | Yards and architecture. |
| | 1904 | A study of school gardens and elementary agriculture. |
| Wright | 1908 | School grounds and school architecture for the school officers of Michigan. |
| | 1910 | School architecture. |
| | 1913 | Planting plans for school grounds in Michigan. |
| | 1913 | School buildings and school grounds. |
| Keeler | 1915 | Michigan standard schools. |
| | 1917 | Buildings, plans, requirements and suggestions. |
| Johnson | 1920 | Equipment, standards, and courses applying to Michigan high schools. |
| | 1922 | School buildings, equipment, and grounds. |
| | 1923 | Rural school building plans, requirements, and suggestions. |

THE SCHOOL DISTRICT

In all but the southern states the district was the usual unit of school administration and was the outgrowth of an agricultural economy. With the development of the larger centers of population this unit to which the people were accustomed became a part of the city school organization under the name of *ward*. These wards, though in the same civic corporation, were nevertheless administered as were the country school districts, that is, with their own officers and entirely independent of one another. In the course of time legislative permission was obtained which made it possible to unite the different wards under a central education authority.

Within the district and the early ward schools there was no classification of pupils in the several school grades to which we are accustomed. In fact, with the exception of a few educators familiar with the Prussian system, there was no knowledge that such a scheme of organization existed. Progress in the school was marked by work done in individual subjects and not through the mastery of a certain prescribed amount of all subjects studied offered in a certain unit of time. In other words the early method of classification was vertical in character while the present method is horizontal. For example, in the Lancasterian schools which represented the most advanced practice in the early part of the last century the pupils in reading were divided into eight classes. The classification for arithmetic was also into eight groups but was entirely independent of the classi-

cation for reading. Promotions in each subject were made in separate lists.

During the thirties criticism began to rise in the Eastern states with respect to the organization of the schools. There was a feeling on the part of some that the boys and girls should not be taught together and also that greater progress would be made if the principle of division of labor were introduced in the school, thereby separating the younger from the older pupils, and then securing teachers particularly qualified to give instruction to such groups as it was thought best to form. Hence the problem of classification and the problem of getting a sufficient number of pupils to make classification possible developed together.

In Horace Mann's report on school houses which was supplementary to his first report as secretary of the board he said:

It seems not unconnected with this subject to inquire, whether in many places out of our cities, a plan may not be adopted to give greater efficiency to the means now devoted to common school education. The population of many towns is so situated as conveniently to allow a gradation of the schools.

By this plan the great superiority of female over male training for children under eight, ten or twelve years of age would be served; the larger scholars would be separated from the smaller, and thus the great diversity of studies and of classes in the same school which now crumbles the teacher's time into dust would be avoided. If four districts cannot be united, three may. If the central point of the territory happens to be populous, a school house may be built consisting of two rooms; one for the larger, the other for the small scholars; both on the same floor, or one above the other.⁷⁸

⁷⁸*Report of the Secretary of the Board of Education on the subject of school houses supplementary to his first annual report, 1838, pp. 30-32 passim.*

In a report on the public schools of Boston made by Emerson in 1839 he stated that they consisted of three grades:

Primary schools for children from 4 to 7 years of age. . . . Grammar and writing schools are the *second* in order. Children are admitted at the age of seven years, who can read easy prose, and continue in them if boys, until they have arrived at fourteen years of age—if girls, until they are sixteen. . . . Each school has two departments. And each department has two divisions. The Latin Grammar School and the English High School constitutes the *third grade*.⁷⁹

In the same year Barnard under the heading, "What can be done to improve the common schools this winter?" made the following suggestion:

The common schools can be improved *by establishing a gradation of schools*, and thereby securing a better classification of the scholars, more appropriate methods of instruction and government, a smaller number of children to each teacher, and a less distracting and ruinous variety of studies in the same school. . . . In some (districts) it is effected by employing an assistant teacher in the same or adjacent room; in others by establishing a high school for the older children of the society; and in a few we have reason to believe a Union School for two or three adjacent districts will be set up.⁸⁰

Writing in 1840 Barnard again urged the development of graded schools:

Many of the evils⁸¹ universally complained of and which result from crowding together children of every age and of both sexes . . . can be obviated and a higher degree of improvement secured with existing means, by a gradation of schools. The elements of such gradation may be found in the high schools, union schools, and district schools now recognized in law. The studies appropriate to each should be defined and different grades

⁷⁹Connecticut Common School Journal, II, 36.

⁸⁰Ibid, p. 53.

of qualifications in teachers appropriate to each class of schools should be established.⁸¹

In the *Common School Journal* of 1840 appears an article by G. B. Emerson who made the report on the Boston system as mentioned above. He stated that

A school may be divided into several divisions according to general progress and deportment. Let the grades be numerous enough so that the distance between contiguous divisions shall not be great. This arrangement may exist only on paper, in the record of the school. It need not affect the studies or the seats of the pupils. And it is much better that it should not. A child may be in the same division, or the book, with another, but be in a higher class in arithmetic, a lower one in reading, and a different one in a third study.⁸²

It is evident that Mann and Barnard meant by a graded school one of the departments made by a horizontal division of the whole group attending, but with no idea of grading the pupils within the respective departments. The report of Emerson in 1839 appears to indicate a gradation within the second class of schools, that is, the grammar and writing school. Doubtless the two departments were the grammar and writing for, historically, these schools had been distinct from one another. The organization then calls for two divisions in each of these departments of a seven year course for boys and a nine year course for girls. The grading suggested in his article appearing in 1840 certainly calls for vertical grading and shows evidence of being influenced by Lancasterian practice.

However, in his report on the schools of Boston for 1847 he proposed that the organization then existing be

⁸¹*Ibid.*, p. 217.

⁸²*Common School Journal*, II, 53.

changed and he outlined a scheme of organization calling for a graded course of study as now understood. By inference the schools of Boston at that time were not so organized:

The schools are too different in their materials to admit of the introduction of precisely the same course for all yet the committee think that differentiation ought to be given to the objects arrived at in the different classes by requiring certain things in each branch to be accomplished by each class.

Such an arrangement, faithfully and carefully made, together with a requisition of something definite in all their studies, from each class, would put an end to an evil which is now loudly complained of in many of our schools.

Such a system of grading was instituted in the Quincy Grammar School in 1848. The plan of the building called for a single room for each teacher with graded divisions or classes from lowest to highest. Within a decade the entire Boston system was organized on this plan.

Superintendent Mayhew, a native of New York, in his report for the year 1847 said:

Within the last few years Union Schools have been organized in villages and densely settled neighborhoods in New York and New England, and to some extent in this and other states. They take their name from the circumstance that two or more districts have generally been united in their formation. These union schools are large district schools with several distinct departments.

The Union School at Geneva, N. Y., has frequently been referred to as a model. The one in Lyons is perhaps equally good. The following facts are gathered from the annual catalog of the institution. The pupils are arranged, according to their advancement, into four different grades. Each grade is divided into two departments, male and female, and each

department is under the special direction of a separate teacher.

In that school are combined all the advantages of the well conducted common school, the academy for young gentlemen, and the seminary for young ladies. Children may there commence with the alphabet, and pass from one grade to another until on leaving the school, they are prepared to enter any college or university in the United States.⁸³

The school at Lyons calls for four grades in a course extending from the alphabet to completing the work necessary to enter college. Certainly this can be nothing else but gradation into separate schools—the same as was advocated by Mann in Massachusetts and Barnard in Connecticut.

With the decline of the Lancasterian system in New York the graded course of study came into use. In 1855 the ward schools were divided into Primary and Grammar schools with five grades or divisions in each. Twelve years later the work in each grade was more definitely outlined. One additional grade was added in the Grammar school making an eleven year common school course.⁸⁴

In the West the most progressive educational center was Cincinnati. In the annual report for 1838 it is stated that the common schools had "within the last year been graded, and the males and females placed in separate apartments, under appropriate teachers."⁸⁵ In the report for the year following it appears that "The system of grading or classing the pupils, heretofore adopted, has been more fully carried into effect in all the schools, and its benefits more generally felt and

⁸³Report for 1847, pp. 101-103 *passim*.

⁸⁴Reigart, *Lancasterian System in the Schools of New York City*, 34.

⁸⁵*Ninth Annual Report to the City Council*, 3.

approved. It tends to lighten the labors of the teachers, to promote good order in the schools, and to secure to the pupils a more certain and rapid advancement in their studies.⁸⁶

The system of grading or classing which was introduced is not clear for a committee appointed in 1840 to define the studies and books used in the common schools reported:

That after a careful examination of the Common School Law, and the action of the Board of Trustees and Examiners, they have been unable to find any definite plan or course of studies prescribed or adopted, in the Common Schools of our city.

The committee then presented a course of study which would cause pupils to be "thoroughly instructed in the branches of learning best suited to the more useful and common purposes of life." The course was outlined for five grades. In the first four grades the subject matter of reading, writing, spelling, arithmetic, geography, grammar, and United States History was outlined with some detail. In the fifth grade the offering was business training, English grammar, rhetoric and composition, algebra, trigonometry, mensuration, surveying, chemistry, botany, geology, natural philosophy, and rural economy. The course might be begun at the age of six, and, unless the pupils were given special permission, could not be continued after reaching the age of sixteen. The course of study, hence, was organized on the basis of five grades or divisions for ten years of work. No data are given to indicate the probable age of children when beginning the work of the fifth grade.⁸⁷

⁸⁶*Tenth Annual Report to the City Council*, 2.

⁸⁷*Eleventh Annual Report to the City Council*, 20-27.

In 1847-48 "A more effective, and as we believe, thoroughly digested course of study" was adopted. This course was the same as the first four grades of the course adopted in 1840 as outlined above with the addition of algebra through equations of the first degree. This course, however, was organized on the basis of nine sections. Provision was made for passing pupils from one section to another as soon as qualified in the subjects of the sections upon examination. General transfer was to be made at the end of each year.⁸⁸

In July of 1847 the Committee on the Course of Study had reported in favor of the immediate establishment of a Central School in which the higher branches of education were to be taught. Such a school was organized in November of that year with a four year course of study including the subjects of the fifth division of the earlier course of study and great enrichment in various other fields of knowledge. Candidates to be admitted to this school were required to pass an examination in the subjects offered in the lower school and to be at least ten years of age. The age distribution of the pupils who entered the school during the first year was as follows:

| | Boys | Girls |
|-------------------|------|-----------------|
| 10-6 to 11-6..... | 1 | 1 |
| 11-6 to 12-6..... | 10 | 4 |
| 12-6 to 13-6..... | 17 | 17 |
| 13-6 to 14-6..... | 27 | 21 |
| 14-6 to 15-6..... | 17 | 33 |
| 15-6 to 16-6..... | 5 | 23 |
| 16-6 to 17-6..... | 3 | 4 ⁸⁹ |

⁸⁸*Nineteenth Annual Report of the City Council*, 4, 61.

⁸⁹*Ibid*, 6, 28-29.

In the East, then, graded schools in the present sense of the term were developing in the late forties, as was also the case in Cincinnati.

Michigan began the movement through legislative action in 1842 when permission was given the city of Detroit to organize the various wards into one school district under the direction of a board of education. All schools were to be public and free to children between the ages of five and seventeen years inclusive.⁹⁰

In the first report of the board of education it was stated that

There should at once be established two grades of schools in each ward, and one or more high schools in the city. The first, primary schools; the second, middle schools; and the high schools for the purpose of completing their common education, or fitting them to enter the university.

In 1849 the union school system was introduced which united the primary and middle schools in one building. No further development took place until after the statement made by Superintendent Nichols in 1856 to the effect that there was no proper grading or classification in the Detroit schools. This condition was remedied through the acceptance by the board of education of the recommendation of its president, D. B. Duffield, in 1858, that the schools be organized as follows—primary, consisting of two grades; secondary, of two grades; junior, of two grades; senior, of three grades; and a high school course of three years. This organization, then, calls for a nine years course in the union schools and three years in the high school.

⁹⁰Act No. 70 of 1842. The data for Detroit are taken from A. B. Moehlman, *The History of Education in Detroit*.

In 1843 the legislature extended the action taken with respect to Detroit by providing that the board of school inspectors

of any township in which is a city or village, if they shall deem that the interests of the school will be promoted by so doing, shall form a single district out of any two or more school districts in any such village or city of this state, shall classify the pupils in such district, according to age, and require that such pupils shall be taught in district schools as classified by them, and such districts may have the same number of school houses, and raise the same amount of taxes which the original districts forming the same could raise if not united.⁹¹

The reports made by the union schools of Michigan to the superintendents of public instruction though incomplete show considerable lack of uniformity in the early years both with respect to nomenclature and the years assigned to the various divisions. In a number of cases it will be noted that the pupils were first divided into definite schools but without a course of study and grade classification thus exhibiting the same course of development as in the East.* By 1876 the twelve year course of study had become common as well as the three main divisions—primary, grammar, and high.

When Superintendent Comstock, the first of the Michigan superintendents of public instruction to mention the union of school districts and the grading of schools, took office the development of the grading sys-

⁹¹Act No. 50, Sec. 37 of 1843.

*Note—The following villages reported their school population as being divided into grades but with no course of study in effect. This is apparently the first stage as indicated in Mann's and Barnard's reports, that is to say, there is division into schools but not into grades:

Buchanan, 1862.

Jonesville, 1858 and 1859.

Niles, 1858.

See Appendix "E".

Saginaw East 1859 and 1862.

St. Clair, 1859.

Vassar, 1862.

tem and the union school movement was on its way as has been shown above. And in some instances this development had been completed in principle by the late forties.

In 1844 Superintendent Comstock wrote that

The consolidation of districts in our cities and rising villages, is highly desirable. A district thus augmented would be capable of erecting and furnishing a building containing four rooms for graduated schools. The rule of graduation should have reference alone to degrees of scholarship. The lowest department should receive new beginners, and the highest those who intend to acquire the most liberal education these institutions could confer. Other departments should be occupied by the intermediate classes of pupils.⁹²

By 1846 the legislature had extended the privilege of forming union school districts to any township regardless of whether or not it contained a city or village.⁹³

In 1847 Superintendent Mayhew advocated the establishing of union schools at the earliest possible period in every county of the State, and in all the villages. His reasons were, in brief, as follows:

1. They are open to all and provide a considerably extended course of instruction.
2. They may be better than our common and select schools now generally are. In them the principle of a division of labor is recognized.
3. Union schools are not only better but they are cheaper than other schools.
4. Common schools and union schools are democratic institutions.
5. The government is usually better in well regulated common

⁹²Report for 1844, 3-4.

⁹³Sec. 92 of compiled laws of 1846.

schools, and especially in union schools, than in select or private schools.

6. Union schools are very good substitutes for normal schools or teachers' seminaries.⁹⁴

The statement is made that union schools had been established at the time the report was written at Marshall, Flint, Jonesville, Coldwater, and that Battle Creek was about to adopt this form of organization.

As has previously been noted the University abandoned the branches because the income was not sufficient to support both them and the University proper. This left no schools intermediate between the primary schools and the University. But the gap in the system was rapidly filled by private schools and academies in which, of course, tuition was charged.

In the meantime union schools had been developing here and there since 1843 and in some instances they provided academic departments. Superintendent Shearman in 1850 stressed the further development of these schools, which were public schools, to solve the problem of preparing boys for the university.⁹⁵

In a report written seven years later, Mr. Mayhew again Superintendent, the point was made that the union schools unlike the academies were in no sense of the term intermediate schools although in some instances they did perform this function. In reality, he said, they were an outgrowth from our own improved condition of the primary school. One may surmise that the stressing of their preparatory function in earlier years had created a sentiment against them which it now seemed

⁹⁴Report for 1847, pp. 103-107.

⁹⁵Report for 1850, p. 3.

necessary to allay. That they had their enemies who rejoiced at their failure is quite evident from the reports.

In addition, there seemed also to be a difference of opinion as to the meaning of the term *union school*. Superintendent Mayhew made the point that the union of two or more adjacent districts did not necessarily make a union school. Neither was it necessary for districts to unite in order to create a union school:

The true idea would be better expressed by the term, Graded School; or System of Graded Schools, as the case may be. The term, Primary School, would then, in its lowest sense, signify a public school taught, chiefly, or generally by a single teacher, as in the majority of the Primary Schools of the rural districts. The term, Graded School, or Union School, would apply to more populous districts, with one large school-house having several different rooms, and employing several different teachers, each teacher having the immediate charge of one grade of scholars, in one room; the classes being promoted from one grade to another, as they advance, having reference chiefly to scholarship, but sometimes, also, it may be, to age and sex.

The term, Union School, is further employed to represent a System of Graded Schools. In the former instance the departments of the *one* Graded School were supposed to be instructed in different rooms in one central building. In the case of a *system* of Graded Schools, however, the lower grades are supposed to be taught in smaller houses, in different wards, or neighborhoods, each separate school, or department, being under the immediate charge of a single teacher. . . . In this case, and especially when there are several district schools, and a large number of children in attendance upon them, it is highly important that a competent Superintendent be employed, who by visiting the different schools and grades, and examining the classes, and directing the promotions, and by giving his counsel and direction as may be needed, may give greater unity for money

and efficiency, to the whole system than would be otherwise attainable.⁹⁶

The true function of the union school, as stated, is to offer, "The best facilities, that circumstances will admit, for obtaining good English education." Yet many of these schools "have very properly undertaken the work of strictly preparatory schools". In such instances Superintendent Mayhew advised that two courses be offered, the one, the regular English union school course; and the other, the course preparatory for college. In no case, he stated, had this as yet been done though it was at the time being "agitated in Detroit".⁹⁷

In this report, the opinions of union school officers in the state are given with respect to the desirability of co-education. All are agreed that experience and observation indicate that the mingling of the sexes is most desirable.

In 1859 the academic departments of union schools were given a legal status by the passing of an act permitting only districts containing more than two hundred children between the ages of four and eighteen, and only two or more contiguous districts with not less than two hundred children between the ages of four and eighteen to form a single district for the purpose of establishing graded or high schools. The trustees were given power to classify and grade the pupils and cause them to be taught in such schools or departments as they might deem expedient. The trustees were also authorized to determine the qualifications for admission

⁹⁶Report for 1857, pp. 47-49.

⁹⁷*Ibid*, 52.

to the high school, the rate to be paid for tuition, and to prescribe the course of study and the text books to be used in the schools.⁹⁸

This law was amended in 1861 by reducing the number of children necessary to organize a graded school to one hundred, and the upper age limit was changed to twenty years.⁹⁹

Superintendent Gregory felt that there was still some misunderstanding with respect to the meaning of terms. He stated that

The union school is always a graded school, though the grading is often imperfect and inefficient. The name union school is simply the common appellation for any public school separated into two or more departments, taught by different teachers, and in separate rooms, either in the same building or several buildings.¹⁰⁰

Graded schools are now so much in the nature of things that it seems strange that there was a time when it was necessary to argue for them and to set forth their advantages. Yet such is the case and Superintendent Gregory sets forth for the benefit of the unconvinced the following advantages, after first explaining what a graded system really is:

1. It economizes the time of the teachers.
2. The teaching will be better.
3. Each class of pupils will receive its due share of time and attention.
4. The school arrangements and exercises may be better adapted to the ages and capacities of the different classes of pupils.

⁹⁸Act No. 161 of 1859.

⁹⁹Act No. 259 of 1861.

¹⁰⁰Report for 1861, p. 15.

5. Pupils will be more thoroughly instructed and more rapidly advanced.
6. Time being economized a much larger number may pursue higher branches without increasing their stay in school.
7. The graded school offers facilities for teaching the higher branches.
8. The high school grades, when added, stimulate the pupils of the lower grades.
9. The advantages of higher education are by this system offered to all the children of these union districts without regard to parentage or wealth.
10. Graded school districts are able to have longer terms of schools without adding to the expense.
11. The graded school permits the erection of better buildings.
12. Graded schools invite a much higher class of teachers.
13. The association of several teachers in the same school offers mutual aid and stimulation.
14. The graded school will be better and more easily governed.
15. The animating and inspiring influence of large numbers belonging to the same institution is of almost immeasurable value.
16. The larger interests demand greater attention on the part of school boards.
17. The presence of a large school incites a higher regard for education among the inhabitants of a graded school district.
18. Thorough supervision of schools is practicable in the graded school district.
19. The graded school is the most economical as well as efficient form of school yet discovered.¹⁰¹

In the same report he stated that much difficulty had been met by school boards in arranging a course of study for the graded schools and that many had applied

¹⁰¹Report for 1861, pp. 16-20.

to him for assistance in the matter. He suggested the following principles as fundamental in a wise selection of subject matter and the arrangement of a course of study:

1. The studies and exercises must be adapted to the ages of the pupils, i. e., to the successive stages in mental growth.
2. The studies must follow each other in logical order.
3. Studies must be selected with reference to their power to contribute to the great ends of education—the cultivation of the mind and heart and the increase of intelligence.
4. As far as consistent with the above principles studies should be selected which will be of most use to the pupil in later life.

He therefore laid out a course of study as follows:
Primary Grade—Two years.

Morals, Object lessons, language, reading, drawing, singing, physical movement, numbers, spelling.

Intermediate—Three years.

Morals, object lessons, reading, spelling, numbers, drawing, singing, physical training, writing, mental arithmetic, geography, physiology, composition.

Grammar—Three Years.

Reading, arithmetic, geography, U. S. History, object lessons, writing, spelling, grammar, word analysis, book-keeping or latin, algebra.

High School—Time not stated.

Algebra, geometry, natural philosophy, rhetoric,

natural history, botany, geology, chemistry, moral and mental philosophy, ancient and modern language.

No further action with respect to the course of study appears until 1876 when the State Association of City Superintendents of Schools prepared a definite outline of work for graded schools. This was a twelve year course including four years in the high school with offerings in mathematics, language, and science; and eight years in the primary school with offerings in reading, arithmetic, geography and history, and language. This program of studies was officially approved by the State Department of Public Instruction.¹⁰²

In the report for 1877 the statement is made that the above course was substantially accepted by the majority of the schools of the state. It was intended to meet the general requirements for those whose studies ended with the High School and for those preparing to enter the scientific department of the University. In the larger schools more subjects were offered with a growing tendency to eliminate so-called courses of study and to give greater freedom of election.

The development of the graded schools under special acts of the legislature and under general legislation went on apace. And with the development of special supervisory school authorities which accompanied this growth of the graded systems the activities of the state departments were directed toward union in another field, that is, the development of township unit districts and the consolidation of district schools.

¹⁰²Report for 1876, pp. xlix ff. See Appendix "F".

THE TOWNSHIP-UNIT DISTRICT

In the early history of Massachusetts provision was made for a town school to be managed by the people assembled in town meeting, or by the selectmen, or by a temporary school committee, appointed by the selectmen or by the electors in town meeting, and finally by an elected school committee. At this time the inhabitants were settled comfortably about the meeting house and the one school met all demands so far as dispersion of the population was concerned.

As time went on homes were established farther and farther from the original settlement and the problem of providing school facilities arose, for attendance of all children upon the central school was no longer possible. Out of these conditions developed what is known as the "moving school", that is to say, the teacher taught the children that could easily meet at any one place and then moved on to the next appointed location.

Soon lines enclosing such homogeneous groups were drawn and the territory so included formed a school district. The people within these bounds were given a due share of the money collected for the support of schools within the town but they had no power to raise a tax within the district limits.

In 1800, however, the General Court conferred upon the district which was legalized in 1789, the power to tax for the purchase of land for a school site and for building, repairing, and furnishing a school house. Following this action the district was made a body politic in 1817, and in 1827 was authorized to choose a pruden-

tial committeeman whose duty was to look after the school property of the district and to employ the teacher. The town still retained the right to raise and apportion the school tax. That being done the town had no further authority over the school. New Englanders established the district unit of school administration in practically all places where their migrations took them.

In a territory that was mainly agricultural and whose inhabitants were located at some little distance from one another the formation of the school district was a logical and useful method of establishing schools. For a people that feared and hated centralization of power, local control over their particular educational institution was fitting. And at a time when teaching technique had not been developed and expert supervision was an unknown function, certification and school inspection by a group of farmers could go on unquestioned.

Michigan had all these specifications together with families from Massachusetts and from New York, which had adopted the district system in 1812. It is not strange then that the Territorial Council legalized the district system in 1827 and that the state legislature continued the practice through the provisions of 1837.

The first note of dissatisfaction with respect to the district system was sounded by Superintendent Comstock in 1844. His suggestion favored not a new unit of administration but the union of contiguous districts for the purpose of securing better school facilities.¹⁰³

As might be expected Superintendent Gregory had strong convictions with respect to the value of the dis-

¹⁰³Report for 1844, p. 2.

strict system. In connection with the problem of the equitable apportionment of money for school support he pointed out in the report for 1860 a weakness in this system of control:

Would our state consent to abolish the present system of districts, and adopt in place of it, the township school system, making each township a school organization, with a township Board of School officers, empowered to receive the school money and support the schools of the township therewith, this whole difficulty of equitable apportionments would at once disappear. The schools would at once be lifted above the blighting influence of neighborhood jealousies and strifes, would oftener be entrusted to wise and competent boards, and could be thoroughly systematized in respect to teaching, text books, and gradation. The towns of Massachusetts are voluntarily returning to this, which was the earliest system of that state. In Pennsylvania and Ohio, a similar system has been established by law. It is in many respects the most efficient system of school organization yet tried.¹⁰⁴

The following year, 1861, the legislature considered a bill which, had it been enacted into a law, would have given to such townships as should so desire permission to establish a township school system. The plan called for a school board of six trustees with power over schools comparable to that of a city school board over the schools of the municipality. The bill was lost in the press of unfinished business.

In discussing the matter Superintendent Gregory enumerated the advantages of the township unit plan as follows:

1. More equitable distribution of school privileges.
2. Better teachers.

¹⁰⁴Report for 1860, p. 18.

3. Equitable apportionment of school funds.
4. More steady and capable management of the schools.
5. More effective supervision possible.
6. Convenience for organizing one or more central high schools for the township and the introduction of the graded system in the rural schools.
7. Securing uniformity of text books.¹⁰⁵

This matter was urged again in 1864 by Superintendent Gregory and in a similar vein by Superintendent Hosford in 1866.

Superintendent Briggs in 1873 took up the question under the head of "District versus Township". To the schedule of improvements which would follow the establishing of the township system as enumerated above were added still others:

1. The average quality of school officers would be greatly increased for a more important office would appeal to more capable men.
2. Since the township is the smallest unit of the civil system it should correspond to the smallest unit of the educational system.¹⁰⁶

In his opinion there should be no difficulty in passing legislation to permit such townships as might so desire to organize and make a trial of the plan.

The legislature evidently thought otherwise for no action was taken and the whole matter lay dormant until 1880 when it was revived by Superintendent Gower. In discussing desirable changes with respect to the rural schools he was firmly of the opinion that the number of school officers should be reduced and the districts of the township united into one administrative unit. The argu-

¹⁰⁵Report for 1862, pp. 6-7.

¹⁰⁶Report for 1873, pp. 5 ff.

ment was based largely on what had been done in Massachusetts. A brief summary of the action taken in that state puts the following facts before us:¹⁰⁷ As early as 1840 Secretary Mann called attention to the evils of the district system. Ten years later a law was enacted permitting the town-district system. In 1861 all towns were required to submit the question of re-organization to a vote of the people at stated intervals. By 1880 practically all the towns had abolished the school district. From this long struggle in Massachusetts Superintendent Gower thought that the reformers who wanted a change over night might learn a lesson. Such changes in Michigan were bound to take time but like his predecessors he could see no reason why the legislature should not make a change possible by passing permissive legislation.

Superintendent Gass in 1883 brought the arguments for the township system down to date. They were as follows:

1. The organization of districts would be simplified and more easily accomplished.
2. The erection of more commodious school houses.
3. Classifying and grading would be facilitated.
4. Better teachers would be employed and their tenure would be more permanent.
5. The burden of taxation would be equalized since it would be spread over a larger community.
6. The public school funds would be more equitably distributed.
7. Equal educational privileges would be extended to all parts of the township.
8. Children could attend the school that was most convenient

¹⁰⁷Report for 1880, p. 38.

9. School houses would be provided with better equipment.
10. The aggregate cost of education would be diminished.
11. Fewer difficulties would arise with respect to district boundaries.
12. Nepotism in the selection of teachers would not exist so extensively as it does now.
13. School houses would be better and more conveniently located.
14. The number of school officers and elections would be largely reduced.
15. Less difficulty would be experienced in getting reliable statistics and information in regard to school work.
16. Schools would not so frequently fail to receive their portion of the school funds.
17. There would be better management and supervision of the schools.
18. Text books could not be so easily changed.
19. The school laws would be simplified, and better understood and obeyed.¹⁰⁸

In the following year, 1884, the Michigan State Teachers Association went on record as favoring the township-district plan and as being in accord with the statements made by Superintendent Gass as given above.¹⁰⁹

A bill was introduced in the Senate providing for a township board of inspectors, sub-districts within the township, a six months' school, a graded course of instruction, uniform text books, and a township high school when so ordered by majority vote. The fate of the bill can be surmised. Superintendent Nelson in commenting on the proposed legislation made the following statement:

¹⁰⁸Report for 1883, p. x.

¹⁰⁹Report for 1884, p. 230.

It is a matter of regret that the bills considered at the last session of the Legislature providing for the adoption of the township district system, and for uniting the offices of examiners and inspectors failed to pass. The original draft of the bill involved almost a complete revision of the school laws, and it was scarcely to be expected that such radical changes could be brought about without more mature consideration, than the members were able to give the subject during the session. I sincerely hope the question may meet with favorable consideration at the next session of the Legislature.¹¹⁰

At the next session, 1887, a bill providing for the township school district was reported out favorably by the committee on education but failed to pass.¹¹¹

Evidently considerable interest was aroused throughout the state. The Department of Public Instruction issued a circular for general distribution giving a synopsis of the defects of the district system and the merits of the township system together with statements made by superintendents of public instruction in other states with respect to the advantages of the town over the district as a unit of school administration.

During these years a number of townships had been permitted by special acts of the legislature to adopt the township-unit plan. In Alpena, for example, five of seven townships reporting, were administered on the large unit basis. Superintendent Estabrook in the report for 1888 compared the results in the one with the other by presenting the following data: The average per capita cost in the township districts was \$13.71 with an average school year of nine months. The average per capita cost in the district system was \$14.80 with an

¹¹⁰Report for 1885, p. xv.

¹¹¹Report for 1887, pp. xv-xvi.

average school year of four and one-half months. In one of the district schools seventeen different text books were used in teaching six branches of study. In the township-district system text books were uniform in every instance. He concluded with saying:

I would therefore most earnestly recommend the passage of an act empowering the voters of any organized civil township to vote upon the question of placing all the schools of the township, excepting the larger graded schools and such as are organized under special charter, under the control of a township board of education. I am firmly convinced that this action on the part of the legislature will ultimately result in more and greater benefits to our rural ungraded schools than any legislation affecting public education that has been adopted since the organization of our school system, excepting, possibly, the abolition of the rate bill.¹¹²

However, the legislature of 1889 failed to pass such an act. It was lost in the House by a vote of 36 to 51, the opposition for the most part coming from the Grange. Several members who voted against the measure expressed themselves as personally favorable to it but that their constituents were uniformly opposed.¹¹³

In 1891 the legislature passed an act permitting the organization of township school districts in the Upper Peninsula.¹¹⁴ At that time through special legislation eight such districts had been formed. Four were in the Upper Peninsula in Alger County; in the Lower Peninsula three were in Alpena County and one in Bay County.

¹¹²Report for 1888, pp. 11 ff.

¹¹³Report for 1889, p. 21.

¹¹⁴Act No. 176 of 1891.

The refusal of the legislature to extend the permissive legislation to the state as a whole brought the following statement from Superintendent Pattengill:

Again the legislature of the State refused to pass even a local option township unit bill. The vote was not on the merits of the bill; but the petitions against the measure from granges, and the lobbying done against the measure at the instigation of the same organization succeeded in convincing the State Senate that it would be an unwise political measure. It is somewhat difficult to account for the attitude of the grange in this State, when it is true that in other States, where the plan works most successfully, the grange is found to be hearty in its support of the measure. This encourages the friends of the system to believe that when the facts are fully known and the question fairly presented, every person who believes in universal education and in giving equal chances to all, will be found ardently supporting a bill which will at least permit any township that so desires to organize its schools on the township unit plan.¹¹⁵

By 1898 ninety-two townships in the Upper Peninsula had organized under the provisions of the law of 1891 and twenty-three townships in the Lower Peninsula had secured the right through special legislation to administer their schools as single districts. "This", wrote Superintendent Hammond, "indicates some favorable sentiment for the township-unit."

Judging by the reports interest in the township unit gave way from 1901 to 1907 to the problem of school centralization. Not until the administration of Superintendent Wright does the topic again appear. Under "Needed Legislation" he asserted that "The legislature should extend to the whole State the statute governing the schools of the upper peninsula."¹¹⁶

¹¹⁵Report for 1894, p. 13.

¹¹⁶Report for 1907, p. 8.

In his report for 1908 Superintendent Wright stated that "The only real problem in Michigan at the present time is the rural school problem." One of the means of solution as it appeared to him was the general introduction of the township-unit. In part he said:

The following are some of the disadvantages in country schools as now organized. First, the necessity of employing cheap teachers, owing to the small taxable area; second, the great number of classes and the small number of pupils in each class; third, the lack of effective tools for teaching; fourth (to us most serious), the lack of possibility of introducing an effective, scientific study of agriculture.

There is a large fraction of the total number of school children in the State who do not have as good school advantages as do the others. That is to say, children living in the country do not have equal school opportunities with those living in a city. We maintain that this is un-American, unjust, illogical, and subversive of the very foundation principles of this government, namely, equal opportunity for all.

* * * * *

The logical unit in education is the township. We believe that one board of education can better administer the affairs of the township than can ten or fifteen boards. We believe that the township district unit system would solve some of the perplexing problems of the country school.

These are some of the advantages which we hope may come with the township unit system: First, better and more economical business administration; second, high school privileges near at home; third, better teachers, because they would be fewer and therefore better paid; fourth, expert supervision; fifth, the elimination of small, weak schools and the bringing together of the children in centers; the country schools would then have advantages similar to those enjoyed in city schools. It would make possible for the rural centralized schools, education in music, drawing, manual training, domestic science, and in that most

important of all arts and sciences, agriculture. Let the boys and girls on the farms have a square deal.¹¹⁷

With the revision of the Constitution in 1908 the legislature provided the means whereby the district system at the option of the people could be changed to the township-district-unit system.¹¹⁸

In the following year Superintendent Wright issued a bulletin on the "Township Unit System". He called attention to the small attendance in many of the districts, pointing out that in more than 1500 districts less than ten were in actual attendance; that buildings were all too frequently below standard in ventilation, lighting, furnishings and equipment; and that the small taxing area made necessary a high rate of taxation.¹¹⁹

Writing in 1911 he stated that a real beginning in the campaign for the adoption of the township-unit system had been made. The question had been presented in fifteen townships and but two had failed to adopt the larger unit. Plans had been made in a number of them for organizing high schools "which will permit the young people to remain at home during the most critical years of their lives, and will assure them an education adapted to their special needs and interests."

SCHOOL CONSOLIDATION

The first mention of school consolidation as already pointed out was made by Superintendent Comstock in 1844. Nothing again appears in the reports on this

¹¹⁷Report for 1908, pp. 22 ff.

¹¹⁸Act No. 117 of 1909.

¹¹⁹Report for 1909, pp. 46 ff.

topic until 1901 when Superintendent Fall swung the movement from the township unit to the problem of centralization:

Michigan boasts of its free schools, that it is possible for a boy to mount step by step from the lowest to and through the high school and on through the college or university. This is absolutely true for the child in the city but for those living in the country this privilege is denied, unless he goes to the city high school at the expense of money and much inconvenience, at a time, too, when he is too young to leave the parental home. One important round of the ladder is lacking in the rural communities and it seems strange that the day of the rural high school dawned so late, but, as a late writer has said: "It has struck at last and it is safe to say that few questions of educational administration have been receiving more general attention than this one, within the last few years."

* * * * *

One of the serious economic questions of the day is that which considers the alarming fact of the great congestion of our population in the large cities and the consequent depopulation of our rural districts. The causes of this are many, but among them is the fact that in increasing numbers our boys and girls are clearly recognizing, as they should, that their generation will, in a more emphatic sense than is true at present, be an educated generation, and if they are to maintain themselves they must have better training than is at present afforded by the ordinary district school. As a result of this some are going out from the country homes to the cities and towns to seek a high school education.

* * * * *

Another great impediment to progress under our present system should be briefly noticed. With the small number of pupils found in many of our district schools, a wide-awake, enthusiastic, progressive school is impossible. The writer has lately seen a graduate of Toronto University and of a prominent normal school

presiding over sixteen pupils. The school adjacent to this was taught by a young girl of seventeen and she was managing one of the "people's universities" with an enrollment of eleven pupils. In neither of these cases was it possible to overcome the embarrassment of the lack of numbers. A school under such circumstances inevitably degrades into a mere form.

* * * * *

In the opinion of many the remedy lies in the consolidation of districts and the establishment of central schools.

Three methods have been suggested by which the central school idea may be realized.

First, it is suggested that the smaller and weaker districts shall be consolidated and that the number in each township shall be reduced to four. A fifth district will be made at the center of the township and a high school building erected large enough to accommodate the children of all grades living in the district, and all the high school pupils from the entire township. A second plan, known as the Ohio plan, consists of the abandonment of all the district schools in a township and the massing of all the pupils into one central school. A third plan is that suggested by the law passed at the last legislature of Michigan known as the Humphrey Rural High School bill. This law is only applicable to townships in which there is not already existing a village or graded school.

The central high school would eventually become the social center of the consolidated district. In its assembly room could be given courses of lectures and there might be held teachers' and patrons' meetings, debates, concerts, etc., etc. The farmers' club also might gather at this central point for mutual consultation as to ways and means of making life better. The mental and social horizon of every man, woman, and child would thus be enlarged, and life take on a deeper and more blessed meaning.

* * * * *

One thing more should be said. There is no disposition on the part of this Department to influence the people to do some-

thing which their own best judgments will not, to the fullest extent, commend. The whole matter is very properly in the hands of the people themselves, and no man or set of men can carry out any reform without their approval. Laws bearing on the subject should contain the referendum. The purpose of the Department will be accomplished when the facts have been placed before the people for their consideration.¹²⁰

Superintendent Fall together with a member of the executive committee of the State Grange, the Hon. A. E. Palmer, investigated the centralized school system of Ohio. The reaction of the Ohio school patrons in general to the system was shown by the following excerpt from the report of the Grange member:

In this township we visited each school, met and talked with the drivers of the wagons. We took pains to meet at their homes a large number of farmers, and from that source gathered a mass of information which can best be compiled in a few true statements. No one was found who for any reason desired to go back to the sub-districts. There were many who acknowledged having originally opposed centralization, but were now among its strongest advocates. The enrollment of pupils is increased upwards of twenty per cent, while the average attendance for 1901 was 96 per cent of the enrollment; this is a result of transportation. The people usually are agreed especially with younger children that there is less sickness because of less exposure. No accidents have ever occurred with their wagons. Very much depends upon the driver. As much care should be exercised in the selection of drivers as teachers.¹²¹

This report to the Grange was, evidently, of considerable influence for we find in the report for 1902 the following statement:

One of the most important topics of the last meeting of the

¹²⁰Report for 1901, pp. 5 ff.

¹²¹*Ibid.*, 28.

State Grange was the rural school question, and that body declared that "We hereby heartily indorse the action of the National Grange upon this subject. We further recommend that in all further legislative action made necessary to carry out the practical working of the centralized school system and adapt it to the present school laws, particular care should be taken that such changes in the law should in no manner seriously affect the continued use of the present rural district system where the people prefer to continue the same."¹²²

This problem of consolidation raised by Superintendent Fall had, of course, no necessary connection with the township-unit system, though in actual practice wherever the township-unit system had been adopted there usually were consolidated schools—for the larger administrative unit made centralization more easy. This, doubtless, was one reason for the prejudice against the township-unit. The township district as a unit of administration meant only that school matters in all districts of the township were controlled by a single board instead of a board for each district.

The legislature of 1901 had made it possible for the people of rural communities to consolidate such contiguous districts as they might desire.¹²³ The legislature of 1903 provided that the districts so formed might vote a tax for the transportation of pupils to and from school, and that the district might use the funds derived from the mill tax, or any part thereof, for the purpose of transporting pupils. Provision was also made by which the district might vote a tax sufficient to pay the tuition and daily transportation of qualified students to any

¹²²Report for 1902, p. 7.

¹²³Act No. 37 of 1901.

high school which the school board might select.¹²⁴ This made secondary school instruction possible but avoided the necessity of establishing a rural high school. So far as legal authority was concerned consolidation of schools, rural high schools, transportation of pupils, and high school instruction through payment of tuition and transportation were provided, and theoretically at least the children of rural communities had achieved somewhat equal educational opportunity.

With the close of Superintendent Fall's term of office attention was focussed once more on the township-unit system and no serious attention, so far as the reports indicate, was given to school consolidation until 1918. In that year Superintendent Johnson expressed himself as follows:

There are many important factors in the development of country life, but there is perhaps none of more importance than the country school. Hundreds of boys and girls of this country are dependent upon it for their education. The means and opportunity to go elsewhere for an education beyond what may be received in the one-room country school are denied to all but a few. The educational training of the country school has lagged behind in the onward march of rural progress. The ideals of the teacher, the desires of parents, and the ambitions of the youth have contributed to the movement of our boys and girls from rural to city life. If this movement is to be checked so that we may retain on the farm the boys and girls who are best fitted to do this part of our country's work, the rural school must be reorganized upon a basis that will cause it to be a force in bringing the boy and girl of the country to appreciate its possibilities.

The educational results obtained by the various communities throughout the United States who have adopted the consolidated

¹²⁴Act No. 10 of 1903.

school indicate that thus far this form of school organization for the country offers the best solution of the rural school problem, and this appears to be true whether the problem is considered from an educational standpoint, social, ethical, or adaptability to country needs.

* * * * *

Michigan has four different laws which provide a method for the consolidation of rural schools:

1. The Graded School Act.
2. The Township Unit Act for the Upper Peninsula of Michigan.
3. The General Township Unit Act.
4. The Rural Agricultural School Act.¹²⁵

In the fifty pages given to this topic is found the latest material available with respect to the distribution of township unit districts and consolidated school districts, statistics of cost, and plans for consolidated school buildings.

A summary of the section is given below:

| | | |
|----------|------|--|
| Sawyer | 1842 | Legislature permitted Detroit to organize as one school district. |
| Comstock | 1843 | Legislature extended the above provision to any township containing a city or village. |
| Comstock | 1844 | Favored consolidation of districts in cities and villages. |
| Comstock | 1846 | Legislature permitted the districts in <i>any</i> township to consolidate. |
| Mayhew | 1847 | Advocated the establishment of union schools in every county of the state. |
| Shearman | 1850 | Stressed the preparatory function of the union school. |
| Mayhew | 1857 | Defined the term <i>union school</i> . |
| Gregory | 1859 | Legislature enacted the high school law. |

¹²⁵Report for 1918, p. 51.

| | | |
|-----------|------|---|
| Gregory | 1860 | Recommended the township-unit plan. |
| Gregory | 1861 | Defined the term <i>union school</i> . Outlined a course of study for union schools. Enumerated the advantages of the township-unit plan. |
| Gregory | 1864 | Urged the township-unit plan. |
| Hosford | 1866 | As above. |
| Briggs | 1873 | As above. |
| Gower | 1880 | Enumerated the values of the township-unit plan. |
| Gass | 1883 | Presented arguments for the township-unit plan. |
| Estabrook | 1888 | Recommended that voters be given opportunity to express themselves with respect to adoption of the township-unit plan. |
| Fitch | 1891 | Legislature permitted townships of the Upper Peninsula to organize on the township-unit plan if so desired. |
| Fall | 1901 | Advocated school consolidation. |
| Wright | 1908 | Township-unit plan a means of solving the rural school problem. Constitutional revision extended act of 1891 to the entire state. |
| Johnson | 1918 | Asked for reorganization of schools through consolidation as a means of solving the problem of the rural school. |

Bulletins issued by the State Department of Public Instruction since 1903 bearing on school consolidation:

| | | |
|--------|------|--|
| Fall | 1903 | Method of consolidating school districts. |
| | 1903 | A study of the centralized schools of Ohio. |
| Wright | 1907 | The township unit high school. |
| | 1909 | The township unit system in Michigan. |
| | 1909 | Rural school efficiency in Kalamazoo County. |
| | 1910 | The township unit system in Michigan. |
| Keeler | 1910 | Consolidated schools in Michigan. |

THE LIBRARY SYSTEM

The movement for developing libraries in school districts originated in New York in 1835. The legislature in that year passed a bill permitting the voters of the district to raise \$20 by taxation to purchase books for a library and \$10 annually thereafter to maintain it. Permissive legislation proving a failure, the legislature of 1838 enacted that \$55,000 should be appropriated annually for the support of libraries in school districts, but at the end of three years the appropriation might be used either for the purchase of books or for payment of teachers' wages as the district might see fit.

Massachusetts likewise passed a permissive school district library law in 1835 which also failed to accomplish the results expected. A change was made in 1842 which made it possible for each district to receive annually \$15 from the state if the district would raise an equal amount.

The Michigan Constitution of 1835 provided that at least one library should be set up in each township as soon as the circumstances of the state should permit. A permanent fund for partial support of these libraries was provided by setting apart the money paid in for exemptions from military duty, and the clear proceeds of all fines assessed for any breach of the penal laws. Such libraries were not established until 1843.

In the meantime Superintendent Pierce submitted the proposition to the legislature in 1837 that public interest would be more generally promoted if a library should be established in every primary school district. Evidently

he was influenced by New York practice as he quotes from the New York superintendent's report on library conditions.¹²⁶

With respect to the value of the school library Superintendent Pierce said:

No means, next to the establishment of schools, can be more admirably adapted to the intellectual and moral culture, the improvement and progress of the people in knowledge, than the founding of well selected libraries. . . . "The clear proceeds of all fines, the equivalent for exemption from military duty," and the proposed \$10 district tax, should the two latter measures be adopted, would constitute a fund, which if judiciously expended from year to year, would produce the choicest fruit.¹²⁷

Following the suggestions of Superintendent Pierce the legislature enacted, that, whenever lawfully assembled, the qualified voters of each district should have power:

Sec. 5. To impose a tax sufficient for the purchase of a suitable library case; also, a sum not exceeding ten dollars annually for the purchase of books, to be selected by a vote of the district, or by the district board when so directed.

Sec. 6. To designate the place where the library shall be kept; and the superintendent of public instruction shall establish the necessary rules for the regulation of the library.

Sec. 20. Each and every district that shall comply with the fifth provision of the eighth section of this act, shall be entitled to its proportion of the clear proceeds of all fines collected within the county for any breach of the penal laws; and also its equivalent for the exemption from military duty, according to the number of children between the ages of five and seventeen years inclusive.¹²⁸

In his report for 1839 Superintendent Pierce again

¹²⁶Report for 1837, p. 28.

¹²⁷*Ibid.*, p. 10.

¹²⁸Act No. LXIII of 1837.

referred to the libraries, stressing the need for a library in every district not only for the dissemination of useful knowledge

. but that teachers may have the benefit of acquiring the most extended and important theoretical information. Means for educating young men to become teachers in our primary schools have been devised; but by the acquirement of all that these means afford, they have only reached the threshold of the temple of knowledge, and are not fitted to work out the highest degree of good without the study of books, and the consequent information and instruction they afford.¹²⁹

Superintendent Sawyer stated in 1841 that though each district was empowered to raise a tax of \$10 annually for library purposes that the total amount raised in 1,486 districts was but \$170.86. He also voiced a complaint, which is made time and again in later reports, that the proceeds of the fines collected in the several counties were not turned over to the library fund.¹³⁰

The permissive district library system proving a failure, the legislature of 1843 made provisions for establishing a library in each township. It was made the duty of the supervisors to apply the sum of twenty-five dollars annually from the proceeds of the mill tax for the purchase and maintenance of a township library. It was further provided that, when the number of volumes in the library should reach two hundred volumes, the qualified electors might reduce the amount of the annual appropriation to ten dollars. Permission was given to raise an annual tax, not to exceed fifty dollars, to be expended by the school inspectors "for the use of the

¹²⁹*House Documents* for 1839, p. 195.

¹³⁰Report for 1841, p. 32.

adult residents of the township or for their children between the ages of four and eighteen."

District libraries already established were still continued by this law; but such townships as had adopted the district library system were given the privilege of voting at each annual meeting the twenty-five dollar appropriation for the support of schools. No provision was made for compelling the districts to levy a tax for the purchase of books. Vigorous growth of libraries under this act could hardly be expected.

In those areas where the township library was the unit the following method was used to enable the various districts within the township to participate in library privileges. Allotments were made to each district whereupon each director took the district apportionment and loaned the books to the school patrons. At the end of three months each director returned his quota to the township clerk and received another supply from the books returned by other directors. The directors received no pay for this work and responsibility, and it was not long before books failed to be distributed or returned.¹³¹

Superintendent Mayhew writing in 1845 soon after the law became effective said, "Our system of township libraries is an admirable one. . . . It is superior to the district system in as much as it enables the township to purchase a greater number of more valuable books, to which, also, each individual of the township is enabled in due time to have access."¹³² However, in 1855 under

¹³¹Act. No. 50 of 1843.

¹³²*Joint Documents of 1845*, p. 21.

the head of "Necessary Legislation" he urged that a system of school district libraries be adopted in place of the township libraries:

A small number of more choice books, owned by and circulated in, the district, it is believed would in the great majority of cases, give better satisfaction, and be more profitable to the reading portion of the community.¹³³

He also advocated at this time the purchase of standard library books from a responsible contractor "who shall obligate himself to supply them at reduced rates, instead of leaving purchasers to depend, as at present, upon itinerant dealers, who too frequently supply indifferent or pernicious books at exorbitant prices."¹³⁴

Four years later the legislature made it possible for the qualified voters at the annual town meeting to determine whether they would continue a township library or return once more to the district system. The expenditure of twenty-five dollars to be taken from the mill tax was no longer mandatory but expenditure was made dependent upon the vote at the annual town meeting and for such an amount as seemed best. The power of the district to levy taxes for the purchase of books was repealed. It was made the duty of the State Board of Education to provide a list of suitable books "and contract with the lowest responsible bidder to furnish the same in such numbers as may be wanted, at stipulated prices."¹³⁵ From this list the district board or the township board of school inspectors were to make

¹³³Report for 1855, p. 25.

¹³⁴Act No. 208 of 1859.

¹³⁵Such lists may be found in the following reports: 1844, p. 31; 1845, p. 132; 1846, p. 40; 1847, p. 166; 1849, p. 109; 1851, p. 587; 1879, p. 111; 1880, p. 91; 1882, p. 126; 1884, p. 76; 1887, p. 63; 1888, p. 32.

their selections. Books were to be kept in the school-house in all cases where they might be properly safeguarded. For many years the books so listed were suited to adult readers rather than to children.

In the report for 1859 Superintendent Gregory wrote rather fully on the topic of libraries.¹³⁶ He called attention to the value of the library in promoting the mental growth and intelligence of the people. Such growth depended, naturally, upon easy access to the books and this condition, he maintained, was best met by the district rather than the township library. The perfection of the library system, however, was not to be gained by passing laws but by diligent and persistent effort on the part of those who managed the system, and, also, upon the appropriation of an annual sum for the purchase of books.

The wisdom of Superintendent Gregory's insistence that a definite sum annually be set aside for library purchases is evident from the report of 1861. Of 685 townships making school reports but 85 had voted any appropriation for libraries from the mill tax. The amount so appropriated was \$3,058.04. "It cannot be concealed," he said, "that no very general popular interest is felt in these libraries."

The cause of this lamentable condition was charged by many to the change from the township to the district library system; though at the time of the change the township libraries were regarded as worthless and ineffective and were condemned in 1859 by two-thirds of the townships of the state.

¹³⁶Report for 1859, pp. 32 ff. See Appendix "G".

In 1863 the law was amended to the effect that, first, school officers were obligated to expend the library money in their possession each year and to purchase books under the state contract unless otherwise ordered by the district or township;¹³⁷ and, second, that districts might expend their surplus funds for the purchase of books after having maintained a school for eight months.¹³⁸

In addition to these enactments, in order further to remedy the bad situation, Superintendent Gregory proposed that districts instead of townships set apart some definite portion of the mill tax for library purposes; and that a state library fund be created, the income from which should be apportioned to the districts maintaining libraries on condition of their raising an equal amount. "Such a law would invite every district to a steady effort in the support of libraries, and make libraries a permanent and potential part of our school machinery."¹³⁹

However, the sentiment of the superintendents of public instruction following Superintendent Gregory seemed to favor the township system. Superintendent Hosford in 1866 remarked, "The value of the township libraries has not been enhanced by being distributed among the several districts of the township." And again in 1868 he said, "The district libraries have proved a failure. The reports from all parts of the state are that no district libraries can be found, except those belonging to some of the Union Schools. Many of the townships had secured the nucleus of a valuable library. . . . In

¹³⁷Act No. 133 of 1863.

¹³⁸Act No. 222 of 1863.

¹³⁹Report for 1863, pp. 31-32.

the change from township to district library the books became scattered, and now scarcely can be found."

In 1869 the legislature complied and enacted that such townships as had under the law of 1859 changed to the district system might by majority vote in town meeting return to the township system with quarterly distribution of books to the districts. Such libraries were to be supported by an annual appropriation voted at town meeting. No amount was specified nor was such appropriation mandatory. Provision was also made by which such districts as should desire to maintain their own libraries might lay a tax on the district for maintenance.¹⁴⁰

Apparently a majority in favor of any method, township or district, was now able to satisfy itself and the building up of libraries should have gone on apace—provided either was wanted. But Superintendent Briggs in his comments on the various sections of the school laws compiled by the Department in 1873 said:

The law requires a list of library books, to be selected and contracted for by the State Board of Education; and the inspectors and district boards are required by law to purchase under this contract, unless the township or district orders otherwise. They are also required to spend the library fund annually. But, as the law makes so inadequate provision for the support of libraries, and, consequently, so few books are purchased, no satisfactory contract could be made for some years past, and, until some change for the better is made, town and district boards will be obliged to purchase in every respect upon their own judgment.¹⁴¹

¹⁴⁰Act No. 103 of 1869.

¹⁴¹*Compiled School Laws of 1873*, p. 59.

He further stated in the report for that year that

Many persons attribute the ill-success to the division of the township libraries to the districts, and advocate as a remedy a return to the township system. The townships can return to that system at any time if they wish, but we have no information that any have ever done so.¹⁴²

In this report a recommendation was made to the legislature that townships or districts be required to levy a yearly tax based on the number of children of school age for the purchase of books.

In the report for 1877 are found numerous statements made by township superintendents with respect to library conditions. A few of these are given below for purposes of local color :

Our district libraries are in bad condition. The library fund, it appears, is used for other purposes than that for which it was designed, and that in most cases illegally. Only one volume has been added in two years.

We have no district library in No. 1 district. I do not know the reason for this, as there is a very large amount of money collected by fines in this county. The school officers must be deficient in their duty in this matter, as it rests with the districts here and not with the board of inspectors. No. 2 has a good library of well selected books. In No. 3 there is no library.

There is a pronounced sentiment against the necessity of a library fund, the argument being that in this age of book making and book agents, any desired volume can readily be obtained, while the masses can hardly find time to read the floods of newspapers, which deal with the more interesting affairs of the present. It might better be applied to the running expenses of the schools.

In the matter of district libraries I have nothing to report, as there are none worthy the name of library, though our town-

¹⁴²Report for 1873, p. 22.

ship library was divided among the districts several years ago, but the books are like the interest of school officers and patrons generally; there are none to be found.

The district libraries are in a bad condition and some of them are lost. School districts in this township will not take the pains to preserve or increase their libraries.

The libraries of the township are in bad disorder. I think there is not a district in the township which has not had library money on hand for the past five years, which should have been used for purchasing books.

In this township the library fund is divided among the districts, and it has in nearly every district been used for general school purposes and no account is kept of it.

Some years ago there was a town library which was distributed among the districts, but there is little left of them now. There has been nothing appropriated for this purpose within my recollection.

I would urge upon the educational department to use its influence with the Legislature to have them take up and establish the library system of the State. I suppose the villages and cities have libraries, but the whole thing in the country is utterly run down. It is in this township, and not a thing has been done for eighteen years. Library money, in express violation of the law, is unscrupulously used for other purposes. How long does the Legislature mean to sit and look on and do nothing? I would have them quit this indecision and double mindedness and decide on some plan and sustain it. Give us, then, the township system or district system or some other system, only let it be one system.¹⁴³

Statistics given in Superintendent Gower's report for 1880 show that of the 1,035 townships in the state 334 had elected to maintain township libraries and, apparently, with a fair degree of success. The district library system was in use in the remaining 701 townships but

¹⁴³Report for 1877, pp. 226 ff.

with an average of less than two in each township. A grand total shows that less than half of the school districts of the state had any advantages either from a district or a township library. His reaction to this situation was: "I am convinced that it is almost impossible to maintain district libraries in any other than graded districts. The country library to be of any value must be a township library."¹⁴⁴

In the revision of 1881 the legislature to all intents enacted a law in harmony with the above recommendation. The township library system was restored with the provision that districts having a school census of not less than one hundred children might establish a district library if two-thirds of the qualified voters so desired. Such a library was authorized to draw its due share of books belonging to the township library. This proviso took care of the graded school districts. The power on the part of both township and district to levy a tax for library purposes was retained. Failure to make reports to the superintendent of public instruction entailed the loss of the library fund for that year. The value of the law, however, was lessened greatly by the provision, "That in townships where the board thereof shall determine and report to the superintendent that the public will be better served by using said money for general school purposes no such forfeiture shall occur."¹⁴⁵

In 1882 a total of 397 townships used the library funds for general school purposes, 315 did not comply

¹⁴⁴Report for 1880, p. 35.

¹⁴⁵Act No. 164 of 1881.

with the law and hence forfeited their share of the library money, and 413 reported that libraries were being supported. The total amount of taxes voted for library purposes was \$4,090.74. The amount of fines for breaches of the penal code made available for the purchase of books was \$9,906.26. This indicates either that the inhabitants of Michigan were extraordinarily law-abiding or that the old complaint that fines were not being turned in could still be urged.¹⁴⁶

By 1893 the tide had turned again toward the district system. The legislature in that year made it possible for any school district by a two-thirds vote at the annual meeting to establish a district library and take its due proportion of books from the township library.¹⁴⁷ Other provisions as set forth in the revision of 1881 remained unchanged.

Graphs in Superintendent Pattengill's report for 1893 tracing the growth of libraries from 1882, when statistics for the first time became fairly adequate, to 1892 show a steady growth of township libraries up to 1885; from that year they remain fairly constant to 1892 with a total of 513. District libraries for statistical purposes were divided throughout as of the year 1881. Those districts having a school census of more than one hundred children electing to maintain a library show a steady growth, with the exception of the year 1887, from approximately 260 to 360. In districts having less than 100 children of census age the curve falls sharply from approximately 915 in 1883 to 750 in 1892.¹⁴⁸

¹⁴⁶Report for 1882, p. 44.

¹⁴⁷Act No. 158 of 1893. This was changed by Act No. 32 of 1909 to a majority vote.

¹⁴⁸Report for 1893, p. 51.

It is probable that the legislature was moved to restore the possibility of maintaining the district library in the smaller districts because of the attitude of Superintendent Pattengill with respect to the relationship between the school library and school instruction. He stated in his report for 1893 that

Many of these libraries we happen to know consist of a few dust-covered, worm-eaten public documents, reports of state officers, and other soul stirring literature of this sort. Now what is needed is a well selected working library in each school, to be kept in the school-house in a neat case prepared for it, to be under the control of the teacher, and to be used not as a circulating library in the district so much as a reference library and an inspiration to the pupils of the schools. The new method of teaching history and geography absolutely requires some books of supplementary matter.¹⁴⁹

This statement of the purpose of the library marks the transition from the earlier conception of a collection of books primarily for the use of the adults in the district and the teacher to a collection of books to be used by the pupils in extending their knowledge of the subjects taught in the school. Selected lists of books of this character which might be purchased for various amounts form a part of the report.

In this report the legislature was advised to amend that section of the law which gave the township board the right to vote the library money for any other purpose than the purchase of books. Reports from 424 townships in 1892-93 showed that the library money had been so used.

In 1913 it was made the duty of the superintendent

¹⁴⁹Report for 1893, pp. 11-12.

of public instruction in co-operation with the state librarian to prepare "at least once in every two years lists of books suitable for township and district libraries from which lists school officers shall select and purchase books for their respective libraries."¹⁵⁰

The major regulations with respect to libraries as shown by the compilation of 1921 are as follows:

I. Constitutional provisions:

- a. The maintenance of at least one library in each township.
- b. Fines for breaches of penal laws to constitute a library fund.
- c. The state superintendent of public instruction and the state librarian are instructed to make a list of books suitable for township and district libraries.

2. Statutory provisions:

- a. Maintenance of township, district, city, and county libraries.
- b. Townships to dispose of township libraries to school districts.
- c. Townships, districts, cities, counties to levy taxes for the support of libraries.

In 1920 the total number of townships was 1,256 and of this number 185 maintained township libraries. The total number of districts—ungraded, graded, and city—was 7,273; the number maintaining libraries was 6,622. The whole number of volumes in township libraries was 168,668 and in district libraries 2,599,815. The amount of penal fines received for libraries was \$484,213.99.

The relation between Departmental recommendations and legislative enactments with respect to libraries shows that in the main the legislature trimmed its sails

¹⁵⁰Act No. 323 of 1913.

to follow the lead of various superintendents who were themselves not in agreement with respect to policy, so far as the desirability of the township or the district library was concerned. In the matter of support of libraries the legislature was not so amenable. The law of 1843 was mandatory—at least \$25 must be appropriated annually for the support of libraries. But with the repeal of that law permissive legislation with respect to support was inaugurated and is still maintained. Only such communities as are vigorous and progressive will take advantage of permissive legislation. Even the public schools would not be generally maintained if there was nothing behind them more forceful than permission to tax for their support.

Of the total amount spent for library purposes in 1920 approximately 95 per cent came from penal fines. The amount available from this source differs in the various counties—Wayne County, for example, secured from this source \$133,430.81; Oscoda County with no township library and five districts out of eleven maintaining libraries received \$11.26; Lake County with no township library and thirty-six out of forty-eight districts maintaining libraries received \$52.91 and of this amount expended but \$18.49.

An adequate library is necessary if good school work is to be done, to say nothing of the value of a library to a community. The problems involved in its support are akin to the problems involved in the support of schools. Support of libraries should be mandatory and provided for as a part of a well conceived plan for equalizing the cost of schools.

A synopsis of recommendations and legislative enactments follows:

| | | |
|------------|------|--|
| Pierce | 1837 | Advocated district rather than township libraries. The legislature so provided. |
| | 1843 | Legislature provided for a library in each township; annual appropriation of \$25 from the mill tax required. |
| Mayhew | 1845 | Favored township libraries. |
| | 1855 | Favored district libraries. |
| Gregory | 1859 | Legislature made choice between township and district library possible. Repealed compulsory support. List of books to be made out by the State Board of Education. Books to be bought from a contractor. |
| | | Advocated district libraries, compulsory support, library fund. |
| | 1863 | Advocated appropriation from the mill tax by the district rather than the township. Spoke again of the desirability of a library fund. |
| Hosford | 1868 | Favored the township library system. |
| | 1869 | Legislature made possible the return from district to township library system. |
| Briggs | 1873 | Asked for annual tax levy for the support of libraries. |
| Gower | 1880 | Asked for township libraries in all but graded school districts. |
| | 1881 | Legislature restored the township library and provided for libraries in graded school districts having a census of more than 100 of school age. |
| Pattengill | 1893 | Advocated the district system with books suited for instruction in the schools. Legislature made possible the return to the district system. |

Keeler 1917 Legislature authorized the formation of county libraries.

THE TRAINING AND CERTIFICATION OF TEACHERS

Formal teacher training began in France in 1672 and in Germany under the influence of France in 1697. Prussia in 1819, following Pestalozzian theory, began the practice of establishing normal schools for the purpose of training teachers for her elementary schools. In 1809 Napoleon established the first normal school in France. In America practically nothing was known of this movement for teacher training in Europe until the *Report of Cousin* published in 1835, yet here and there, before that time, efforts were being made to prepare teachers for service.

Samuel R. Hall opened a private school for the training of teachers at Concord, Vermont, in 1823 and continued it at different locations until 1840. The course offered covered three years of work in which the common branches were reviewed and more advanced work such as was given in the typical academy was added. In the latter part of the third year a course was offered called the "Art of Teaching" in which instruction based on his own experiences as a teacher was given in the field of school organization and management. This material was published under the title *Lectures in School Keeping* and was very commonly used in teacher training classes.

Governor Clinton of New York, always an enthusiastic supporter of education, recommended in 1827 that

there be a school in every county set up for the education of teachers. Due to his influence and the recommendations of the Board of Regents the legislature in 1827 provided for state aid to such academies as should form classes for the training of teachers. Probably too many jumped in after the bonus for the legislature in 1834 made provision for but one state-aided academy in each judicial district. Furthermore, the Board of Regents prescribed the regulations to which these academies were to conform.

The Massachusetts State Board of Education, Horace Mann, Secretary, began the policy of setting up special schools for the training of teachers instead of making use of academies already established as was done in New York. The first of these schools was opened in 1839, at Lexington, in the town hall. The first building in the United States erected solely for teacher training purposes was at Bridgewater, Massachusetts, in 1846.

At the time of their origin and for many years afterward the instruction given in teacher training classes and in normal schools was almost entirely academic in character. The practical experience of the instructor was the basis of instruction in the art of teaching. Though the foundations had been laid in the work of Rousseau and of Pestalozzi, yet it was long after these men had done their work that scientists, historians, philosophers, mathematicians and sociologists turned to the field of education and began their contributions which have resulted in our present body of professional knowledge, a growth in the large of less than twenty-five years.

Before Michigan became a state, then, the need of training for teachers had been recognized; a system of training classes, one for each judicial district, had been authorized by the New York legislature; private schools for teacher training had been established; and public sentiment was being developed and directed in Massachusetts to the establishment of institutions for the sole purpose of preparing young men and women to teach in the public schools.

In Superintendent Pierce's original plan for the Michigan school system he provided for a branch of the University in each county and in these branches classes to prepare teachers for the common schools were to be organized. But slight attention was given to this proposed function of the branches. Their energies were directed to the preparation of students for the University. Nevertheless the need of special preparation on the part of those going out into the public schools to teach was definitely recognized by the state department of education at the very outset.

Superintendent Sawyer in the report for 1841 under "Duties of Inspectors" gave his ideas with respect to the qualities which should be looked for in teachers and thus incidentally the character of their training:

As to the kind and degree of learning required by law, much is left to the examiner's sound discretion. Generally, the circumstances of the school, over which the teacher is to be placed, must govern. College learning, certainly, is not contemplated; for that is hardly wanted in common schools. If sought by any, the university is expected to give it. Nor are the higher branches of academic learning essential, particularly in the present condition of our schools. An elementary school, where the rudiments

of an English education only are taught, such as reading, spelling, writing and the outlines barely of geography, arithmetic and grammar, requires a female of practical common sense, with amiable and winning manners, a patient spirit, and a tolerable knowledge of the springs of human action. A female thus qualified, carrying with her into the school room the gentle influences of her sex, will do more to inculcate right morals and prepare the youthful intellect for the severer discipline of its after years, than the most accomplished and learned male teacher. The heathen notion, that females have no souls, was exploded with the occasion that gave it birth among the wrangling schoolmen of antiquity. It is now generally admitted that they not only have souls, but souls capable of a high order of intellectual development; while, in the matter of heart and all those holier emotions which give to humanity its crowning glory, they leave the "lords of creation" far in the rear. In most of our common schools, the ages of the scholars require female teachers; and the reports show that the summer and some of the winter schools are kept by them. But the inspectors cannot scrutinize their qualifications too nicely. An unqualified female is less to be tolerated than an unqualified male teacher, because her influence, if wrongly directed, is by far the most dangerous.

In some foreign countries—Holland, Prussia and others—the art of teaching is taught like any other art; and such has been the conviction of its necessity in Massachusetts, that no less than three Normal schools, or schools for educating teachers, have been established. The two great objects of those schools, say the board of education, in their annual report of 1839, are, first, to impart to the pupils a more correct and thorough knowledge of the various branches required to be taught in the schools; and second, to teach the principles of communicating instruction both in theory and in practice, at a model school connected with the main institution.

If then the ability to teach constitutes a qualification, the legal duty of an inspector is not exhausted by one examination, espe-

cially if that examination be made before the teacher has opened his school. On such an examination, the power to teach or faculty of communicating instruction cannot be tested. It is only by following the candidate into the school; and there watching the gradual or sudden developments of his disposition, his modes of teaching, and the manner in which he disciplines his scholars and otherwise governs his school, that the demands of the law can be met. We all know how easy it is to be deceived in these matters. A candidate may pass a good examination, and theoretically be pronounced qualified; yet in the school room exhibit anything but the traits of a schoolmaster.¹⁵¹

His further suggestion that the branches should prepare teachers for the common schools, had it been carried out, would have given Michigan a means of teacher training similar to the use made of the academy in New York:*

While it cannot be denied that the studies pursued in the branches are such as commend themselves to the good sense and refined taste of English and classical scholars, it is yet thought that improvement even here, is possible. The late superintendent, in his annual report of 1838, in urging the necessity of sustaining the branches, speaks of them as "important to the success of primary schools, being, as they are, the sole means of obtaining a full supply of competent teachers." This is conceived to be one of the most cogent reasons that can be adduced in favor of the branch system. Merely as preparatory seminaries for an admission to the main university, branches could hardly claim an expensive support out of the public fund; but, as the means of giving to the state qualified teachers for the common schools, every consideration unites to have them sustained. Is this end always kept in view? Are the branches made to subserve the double purpose of preparing students for college, and teachers for the schools? It is feared that in some of them, while

¹⁵¹Report for 1841, pp. 17 ff.

the university is ever in the mind, the primary school is forgotten. The art of teaching, though well understood, is not adequately taught. The Normal school principles are not yet incorporated into the branch system. Until a regular school for teachers shall be established in the state, it is right that one or more of the branches make teaching a part of its instruction. Let teaching become one of the learned professions. Let the teacher's certificate of fitness to teach, be to him as sure a means of obtaining a livelihood, as the diploma generally is to the graduate of a college. Having capable teachers, our schools will begin to flourish. When the schools flourish, the university will flourish, and not before. The organic law requires in each branch, "a department especially appropriated to the education of teachers for the primary schools." A model school, connected with this department, would afford all the aid that a young man or a young woman could want to perfect him or her in the practice as well as theory of teaching; and it is believed, that such a school might easily be kept up the whole year, in any or all of the places where branches are in operation.¹⁵²

The next superintendent to take office was O. C. Comstock. His contribution to the need of teacher training as given in the report for 1843 was as follows:

Eligible teachers are all-important. This fact is now more deeply and generally impressed on the public mind than formerly. A new science, founded on the nature of man, has been ascertained and taught. It is pedagogics, or the science of teaching. This is a distinct and most valuable science. On it the successful investigation of all other sciences depends. Its application is the art of teaching. It was once imagined that almost every man of a competent education could teach a school. But to this proposition there are many exceptions. It does not follow that because a man has received a liberal education, he is therefore a lawyer or physician. With all his attainments, he can be neither, till he shall have faithfully studied one of these learned professions.

¹⁵²Report for 1841, pp. 53-54.

And, by a parity of reasoning, it is plain that an acquaintance with general literature and science does not, of necessity, prepare one for the arduous, but delightful business of educating the undying mind. Such a preparation is chiefly derived from the study of the science and art of teaching. Firmly persuaded of this truth, many of the governments of the old world and some of our sister states have instituted normal schools, in which the science and art of teaching are elucidated and enforced. Model schools are formed and taught in these institutions. Here candidates for the office of teacher see many beneficial demonstrations in reference to classification, methods of teaching and government: and, in short, whatever is valuable within the range of human knowledge, regarding this paramount interest.¹⁵³

Superintendent Comstock during his term of office warmly advocated the establishment of union schools. So did his successor Superintendent Mayhew. During the latter's term of office the legislature provided that

Whenever the board of inspectors of any township shall deem that the interest of any of the schools will be best promoted by so doing, they may form a single district out of any two or more districts therein; and may classify the pupils in such districts into two or more classes, according to their proficiency and advancement in learning, and require that such pupils be taught in distinct schools or departments as classified by them.¹⁵⁴

Superintendent Mayhew was quick to see the possibilities in the union school movement for the training of teachers. They give, he said, an extensive, thorough and practical course of instruction that every teacher needs to qualify for his work. In addition the principal might organize a teachers' class in the fall and spring for the benefit of those intending to teach. Observation of teaching would be possible in the several grades of

¹⁵³Report for 1843, p. 7.

¹⁵⁴Sec. 92, *School Code* of 1846.

the school, which should be so conducted as to constitute a model school.¹⁵⁵

In 1848 a resolution was offered in the House:

That the committee on education be instructed to inquire into, and report to this House, the propriety of establishing by law a separate department in the university of this state, for the education of teachers, both male and female, and that they have leave to report by bill or otherwise.

No bill was reported.

There was also a bill introduced in the Senate to establish a branch of the university as a state normal school. This failed to pass.

Two petitions to the House asking for the passage of a bill providing for a state normal school were tabled by that body.¹⁵⁶

A House bill to provide for a normal school instructor likewise failed to pass.

It is quite probable that the influence of Superintendent Mayhew was thrown against the petition for normal schools. In the report for the year 1840, in stating his views with respect to the need of training on the part of teachers, he expressed a decided preference for the teachers' institute as a means of training rather than a normal school:

To qualify a person for the most efficient and successful discharge of the duties of an instructor of youth, he should himself receive his training, from the very first, in the best schools. Well conducted Union Schools, hence become the very best preliminary training places for teachers. But these alone are not sufficient. A regular course of normal instruction should subsequently be given. This is as important,—I may say, as essential,

¹⁵⁵Report for 1848, pp. 104-105.

¹⁵⁶*House Journal*, 1848, pp. 57, 594, 659, 676, 692.

—to enable the mere scholar to become a good teacher, as are the exercises and developments of the dissecting room to constitute him a good physician. In addition to these, the latter needs hospital practice with an experienced physician. The former, likewise, needs practice in the model school, under the supervision of a normal professor. But, neither all teachers, nor all physicians, can avail themselves of such advantages, desirable as they are. They should, however, seek the best opportunities that are afforded them, to become proficient.

From these considerations, the necessity of establishing normal schools, and the advantages that would result from their establishment and patronage, may be readily inferred. I would not, however, with our age as a State, and the advancement we have made in the department of public instruction, recommend the establishment of a single State Normal School;—and especially, when we consider our present necessities. During the past year there have been employed in our public schools, 1,413 male, and 2,436 female teachers. With, or without, a State Normal School, we must depend mainly upon these to supply our schools with teachers, for some years to come. It then becomes us to make provision for their improvement. If we can provide a course of normal instruction of which the present generation of teachers can generally avail themselves, we accomplish a two fold good. In the first place, we provide better teachers for the 117,952 youth of the State. By this means our citizens generally will see the benefits of normal training, and will thus be prepared for the timely establishment of one or more State Normal Schools, in which a more thorough and extensive course of instruction may be given. I would suggest the following, as the plan that seems to me best adapted to our present circumstances:—

Let three or four Teachers' Institutes, or Normal Classes be held annually, or at most, semi-annually, (fall and spring) in different parts of the State, as shall best accommodate the whole State.

This would, in my opinion, at present, be far better than estab-

lishing a single State Normal School, inasmuch as it would afford an opportunity of benefitting a greater number of teachers, in a more acceptable manner, and at less expense. Very many teachers would attend a course of normal instruction, to continue from two to four weeks, who would be unable to avail themselves of the benefits of a more extensive course, at a State Normal School. Moreover, the citizens of several villages in this State have offered gratuitous board to two hundred teachers, for a session of two or three weeks.¹⁵⁷

Nevertheless, in the following year, influenced greatly by former Superintendent Comstock who was House Chairman of the committee on education, the legislature established a state normal school. The law in part reads as follows:

. the exclusive purposes of which (the state normal school) shall be the instruction of persons both male and female in the art of teaching, and in all the various branches that pertain to a good common school education.

They (the board of education) shall also establish a model school in connection with a normal school, and shall make all the regulations necessary to govern and support the same.

As soon as any person has attended said institution twenty-two weeks, said person may be examined in the studies required by the board, and if it shall appear that said person has received the proper training, and possesses the learning, and other qualifications necessary to teach a good common school, said person shall receive the proper certificate from the principal, and board of education, certified by the superintendent of public instruction.¹⁵⁸

During the following ten years (1849-1859) there was little said by the superintendents on this topic.

Superintendent Gregory in 1859 expressed himself with his usual vigor on the necessity of adequate provi-

¹⁵⁷Report for 1849, pp. 25 ff.

¹⁵⁸Act No. 138 of 1849.

sion for the training of teachers. He found that the normal school was handicapped in its work, as were the teachers' institutes, by the meager academic knowledge possessed by the candidates. They had to be grounded in simple arithmetic, grammar, and geography which consumed the time and effort of the normal school instructors. Their efforts, he believed, should be given to professional training in the theory of education and practical training in the methods of teaching and managing schools. He stated that the question of additional normal schools had arisen among those who realized the inadequacy of one institution to train the teachers needed for Michigan's schools. But the Superintendent thought that such a task was an impossible one. The great majority of the teachers had no intention of continuing long in the work and hence would not consent to take a long course of training. Under good conditions, that is to say, if candidates were well grounded in subject matter before entering, the present Normal School with some increase in accommodations for students would take care of all who wished to devote themselves permanently to the business of teaching. He found that most of the colleges, academies, and leading union schools had organized teachers' classes and several hundreds of teachers were annually sent out from these classes to give instruction in the schools of the state:

Could, then, teachers' classes be subjected to an annual examination by the Superintendent of Public Instruction or such examiners as he might appoint, and certificates, as teachers, given by the Superintendent to such as should give evidence that they

had thoroughly completed some prescribed course of study, and were competent to the care and management of a primary school, the success and usefulness of such classes would be greatly increased.¹⁵⁹

He also suggested that a fund be provided whose proceeds should be distributed to such institutions as organized normal or teachers' classes in proportion to the number of pupils who passed satisfactorily the annual examinations. This would give a powerful impulse to the business of teacher training and "the question of a supply of qualified teachers would come nigh to a satisfactory answer." This scheme was suggested to him by the methods used in New York and Wisconsin.

In 1860 Superintendent Gregory again wrote of the possibilities for teacher training latent in the colleges and union schools of the state. Of these institutions at least twenty had organized such classes; and he recommended to the legislature that the superintendent be authorized to select such of these institutions as were suitably located not to exceed one for each county "and prescribe a course of normal training and instruction for the teachers' classes to be taught therein." Uniform examinations should be held throughout the state for the pupils enrolled in these classes. He also recommended that the superintendent be authorized to issue state certificates to the teachers who had satisfactorily completed the prescribed course of study. And he again suggested the desirability of state aid for such schools as performed this needed service in training teachers.¹⁶⁰ These points were reiterated in his report for 1862.

¹⁵⁹Report for 1859, pp. 9 ff.

¹⁶⁰Report for 1860, p. 506.

The following year in commenting upon the University he stated that there were at best two fields of eminent public usefulness in which its forces might be properly employed. Writing in the midst of the Civil War he stressed the need of preparedness, of the danger of sending untrained youth under ignorant commanders to risk their lives on the field of battle, hence the University should provide a course in military training; and in the second place the University should establish a department for training teachers:

Since the University sends forth so many of its students to become teachers, it ought to instruct them in the art of teaching.

The University owes it to the great school system which it so worthily crowns, to teach educational art and philosophy to its students; and the officers of our public schools may reasonably call upon the Regents to provide for a proper course of instruction in this department.

Nor need the work of such a department stop with the instruction of the proper students of the University classes. It may and should invite others to its course of pedagogic lectures and drills. There is a class of educated men seeking service in the schools and colleges, who will be more naturally attracted to the University than to any other place, to gain the professional instruction needed to fit them for their work.

It is obvious to all who have reflected profoundly upon the subject, that our agencies for the preparation of teachers ought to be greatly increased. The yearly augmentation of the number, and elevation of the character, of our schools render it more and more difficult to supply the large host of educated teachers needed by them. The State Normal School is working up to its full capacity of space and power, and with unsurpassed energy and success. Why should not the State University lend its aid and do some part of this work, thus linking itself more closely to the mighty machinery of public instruction, and stretching forth

its helping hand to the grand task of the universal education of the people? Other colleges yielding to the popular demand and needs, have organized their classes for the instruction of teachers. Why should not the State University also extend its broad mantle and embrace the honorable profession of teachers, among the fraternities of learned men to whom it grants the benefits of its instruction, and whom it endows with the renown of its great name?

During the last two years, the Superintendent, to supply in part the lack of such instruction, gratuitously delivered short courses of lectures to the senior classes, and is under engagement to perform a like service for the present senior class. But a labor of so much public importance should not be left to the poor chances of some volunteer efforts.¹⁶¹

No action was taken on this recommendation. There was no great demand for training facilities as shown by the following legislative action.—A Senate bill for the establishment of departments for normal instruction in connection with the colleges of the state failed to pass; and a House bill to provide for the establishment and instruction of teachers' classes in union and high schools met a like fate.¹⁶²

In his next report, 1864, Superintendent Gregory declared that the legislature was bound "by all the highest considerations of public safety and well being," to provide among other things additional facilities for the education of teachers by the establishment of normal classes in high schools and colleges under the strict control and supervision of the state board of education and the superintendent of public instruction.¹⁶³

¹⁶¹Report for 1863, pp. 6 ff.

¹⁶²*House Journal*, 1863, Vol. 1, pp. 701, 1283, 1291.

¹⁶³Report for 1864, p. 8.

Under the caption "The education of teachers" he wrote as follows:

In a long continued observation of school affairs, nothing has impressed me more unfavorably than the readiness of the people to employ as the teachers of their children persons wholly without any special training as educators, and often without any experience in teaching. In every other human employment, men inquire closely after the qualifications of those whom they seek to employ, and often refuse to accept the services of those who have not proved in practice their ability in their calling. But after all the efforts made by Normal Schools and by Teachers' Institutes, the great majority of the teachers of our public schools consist of those who have never studied the science of education, and who, without any special preparation, have sought the office of teacher as a temporary employment. The shoemaker, the blacksmith and the tailor, must have served a long apprenticeship, and acquired skill by practice. The physician and lawyer must have thoroughly studied the books of their profession, and even the ditch-digger must learn his trade, but the teacher of our children needs only to secure the certificate of a too easy Board of Inspectors that he understands a few common branches of learning, in order to have surrendered to him, without further question, the training of minds filled with quick and mysterious powers and impulses, and the instruction in sciences and arts involving a thousand subtle laws and logical relations.

To suppose that one may wisely and successfully deal with the spiritual nature of children, arousing into action inert faculties, directing the wayward impulses, schooling blind passions, awakening dormant powers of thought, giving sound scholarship in science, developing intelligence, forming right habits, and moulding into shapeliness, harmony and power a nature wild, discordant and weak from immaturity; and may do this by exercising the mind, in the disciplining study of science, and by dint of drill lessons in the mystic arts of thought, without experience and without any special study of the powers and processes in-

volved, is to expect a daily miracle vastly more wonderful than changing a staff into a serpent, or making Aaron's rod to bud and bear fruit. If it be said that such miracles are accomplished in our school rooms,—that unskilled teachers do teach good schools, and produce good scholars and well educated men, I must be permitted to doubt it till some better evidence than that hitherto afforded is brought forth. If the veil could be withdrawn, and the revealing light be let in upon the work of our schools, a most shameful amount of failures would be seen.

It ought, perhaps, in justice to be said that the poor and unskillful teaching is not all confined to the common schools. Some of the most absurd and fruitless teaching I ever saw, was given inside of a College, and by a learned Professor. Indeed, it is notorious, that aptness to teach is by no means counted requisite in filling a College Chair. If the incumbent is well crammed with science, or has a wide reputation for scholarship, he has all the qualifications considered requisite by ordinary Boards of College Trustees.

Thus the evil complained of reaches throughout the entire range of our Schools and demands alike universal effort for its removal. The establishment of the Normal School and the Teachers' Institutes has done something to produce a more correct and wholesome public sentiment. School Boards, much more frequently than formerly, insist upon evidences of successful experience, and ask concerning the professional training of their teachers. If a full supply of well educated and specially trained teachers could be had, it is probable that soon no others could find employment in our public schools. It ought, therefore, to be a prime object in our educational legislation to provide adequate means for the special education of a sufficient number of teachers for the entire State. That it is a work of no small magnitude to train, and keep good, the number of eight thousand teachers annually employed in our State, is very evident; but it is a work whose vital importance to our children is so great that we ought not to shrink from it.

Looking at the stern and ever growing necessities of the case, I cannot forbear a renewal of the recommendation, made repeatedly in former reports, that legal authority shall be given to the State Board of Education to organize Teachers' Departments in the High Schools and Colleges of the State. There is already a very general feeling in favor of such a movement, among the friends of education throughout the State, and its adoption would doubtless be welcomed as a step in the right direction. Nor would it be out of harmony with the general movement of the age in educational affairs. Considerable numbers of our higher institutions of learning are organizing such departments in obedience to the felt public demand, and the past summer, President Hill, of Harvard College, read a paper before the National Teachers' Association on the duty of our leading Colleges to establish Professorships of the Science of Education. When one of the Oldest of American Scholars, speaking from the President's Chair of the first of American Colleges, advocates such a measure, it may well demand our serious consideration.¹⁶⁴

A circular was sent out from the office in 1864 to all the union schools, colleges, and academies in the state in order to learn what was being done for the professional instruction of teachers and whether these institutions would co-operate if some general organization and course of instruction should be sent out from the state department of education. Twelve such institutions, it was found, were offering teachers' courses and all expressed themselves as heartily in sympathy with any scheme for increasing their efficiency. Pressure of other duties prevented Superintendent Gregory from planning a course of instruction for these schools but he did render substantial service by organizing a course of professional instruction for Kalamazoo College.

¹⁶⁴Report for 1864, pp. 25 ff.

Superintendent Hosford was elected to the office in 1885. He submitted much the same questionnaire as had his predecessor and with like result. Many school principals expressed themselves as desiring some help in the work through well defined courses of instruction for teachers' classes. E. A. Strong, Superintendent of Schools, Grand Rapids, said:

It seems to me that our Legislature should either locate a branch of the normal school here, or recognize our work so far as to give validity to our certificate, after a prescribed examination, and to pay us something for it. It is quite probable that we shall drop the class hereafter.

This is what Superintendent Gregory had recommended that the legislature should do.

In 1867 Superintendent Hosford again raised the question of adequate preparation for the work of teaching. Nearly ten thousand teachers were employed in the state at that time with one normal school as the only authorized institution for training with the exception of teachers' institutes. Between two and three thousand entered the ranks for the first time each year, the great majority of whom had received no training beyond the primary school. It was recommended that a normal department be established in every union school which should ground the prospective teacher in a thorough knowledge of the subject matter to be taught and offer some opportunity for the study of the theory and practice of teaching. "This would be equivalent to creating a hundred normal schools at once." With such an arrangement the normal school should attempt nothing but professional work.¹⁶⁵ No mention was made of state

¹⁶⁵Report for 1867, pp. 151 ff.

aid for this work as suggested by the Grand Rapids superintendent; of recognizing the pupil's effort through state certification; or of state supervision of these training classes. As a plan it fell short of that proposed by Superintendent Gregory.

The special demand of the time on the part of thoughtful educators, but not the public, was for trained teachers in the district schools and the great difficulty as the superintendent's office saw it lay in the attitude of the school patrons. Their most frequent expression was—"Almost any one is able to teach our school; there are no advanced scholars in it." Michigan at this time was decidedly an agricultural state and with such an attitude on the part of their constituency, one would not expect much enthusiasm for teacher training on the part of the legislators. What was needed, said Superintendent Briggs in 1873, was the creation of a public sentiment upon the whole matter of education which would bring about more ample remuneration for the successful teacher. With higher salaries more adequate preparation could be demanded, and this in turn would make further provision for training teachers necessary.¹⁶⁰

In 1848 and again in 1863 the question of establishing a department for training teachers at the University had been brought up. In 1873 Superintendent Briggs stated that the Board of Visitors recommended that the University give instruction which should lead to a more profitable development of our natural resources and to skilled supervision of our mechanical and manufacturing industries. In commenting he asked:

¹⁶⁰Report for 1873, p. 12.

In view of the pressing need of a larger supply of trained and skillful teachers, may not our preparatory schools, with as much show of earnestness, put in a plea for a normal department in the University, especially as it is graduating so many who become teachers; ought they not to be instructed there in the theory and art of teaching? Our Normal School is working to the extent of its capacity, and with commendable spirit and success. Our high schools, many of them, realizing the urgent need, are organizing both in the fall and spring, normal classes for the benefit of those designing to take primary schools for the winter and summer terms, and thereby adding materially to the teaching force of the State. The University should provide a normal department which is due to the school system it so worthily crowns, and thereby contribute its aid in this professional work, thus identifying itself still more closely with our public schools and public instruction.¹⁸⁷

Regardless of conditions set forth by the superintendent of public instruction with respect to the inadequacy of the means for training teachers, in 1875 the House refused to pass the Senate bill authorizing the establishment of a normal school in the Upper Peninsula. A bill to organize teacher training classes in union and high schools was likewise lost in the House. The House also refused the request for an appropriation of \$30,000 to enlarge the State Normal School.

In an article by the Hon. Peter White of Marquette an interesting side light is thrown on the failure of the Upper Peninsula to secure a normal school at this time. He placed the responsibility upon the Ypsilanti institution and a few University professors:

One would have thought such a bill would not encounter any opposition; but no, it passed the Senate by only a fair majority,

¹⁸⁷*Ibid.*, pp. 17-18.

and within two days brought to Lansing the principal of the Ypsilanti Normal and all his professors, two or three influential professors of the State University accompanying them to kill the bill before it passed the House of Representatives. And they succeeded. The Normal School principal went before the Committee on Education and talked long and eloquently to the effect that another normal school in the state would weaken the one we had, and in the end ruin would come to both.

And this in the face of crowded conditions at the State Normal School, the pleas of various superintendents for increased training facilities, and thousands of untrained school keepers.

President Angell in 1878 proposed that a non-resident lecturer on Pedagogics be appointed for part time¹⁶⁸ but the Regents in 1879 went beyond his suggestion and established a chair of "The Science and Art of Teaching."¹⁶⁹ The function of this new department, as stated, was to fit University students for the higher positions in public school service; to secure to teaching the rights, prerogatives, and advantages of a profession; and to give more perfect unity to the state educational system by bringing the secondary schools into closer relation with the University.¹⁷⁰ After considerable effort to secure favorable action the University was permitted in 1891 to certificate all persons taking both a degree from the literary college and a diploma for work done in the science and art of teaching.¹⁷¹

Two years later the teacher training work given in the various incorporated colleges of the state was recog-

¹⁶⁸*Regents' Proceedings* for 1878, pp. 289-90.

¹⁶⁹*Ibid.* for 1879, pp. 388-89.

¹⁷⁰*Ibid.* p. 415.

¹⁷¹Act No. 144 of 1891.

nized by the legislature. Power was given the State Board of Education to certificate, without examination, any person qualifying for a degree who in addition had pursued an approved course in the Science and Art of Teaching.¹⁷²

Though there were still three normal schools to be established, yet in principle the superintendents of public instruction had succeeded in getting nearly all that they had asked for—normal school, university department of education, and recognition through state certification of the work offered in the colleges of the state. One other recommendation had been made time and again, was frequently brought up in the legislature and as often failed of enactment, namely, more widespread or local means for training teachers in union schools, high schools, and academies, which should be under the general supervision of the state department.

In 1901 Superintendent Fall reported that the number who graduated from the various institutions providing definite pedagogical instruction was 542. Accordingly as near as he could estimate 3,000 persons entirely untrained and inexperienced annually entered the ranks in order to put a teacher in each school. "What," he asks, "is the solution of that problem? Our answer is, take the normal school to the teacher."

He recommended to the legislature that provision be made for a county normal board of which the state superintendent and the county commissioner of schools in each county should be members. This board should be authorized to select not more than one school in each

¹⁷²Act No. 136 of 1893.

county for the purpose of organizing a county normal training department; to determine the course of study; to fix the qualifications for admission; and to grant certificates upon the completion of the course. The law should provide in addition an annual appropriation for the benefit of these schools. Such a law, he said, was enacted in New York in 1894, and in Wisconsin in 1898.¹⁷³ The recommendation made by Superintendent Fall is fundamentally the same as that made by Superintendent Gregory in 1860. The legislature of 1903 acted favorably on the Superintendent's recommendation and established the county normal training class.¹⁷⁴ Each county in Michigan by complying with certain requirements may now have a local training center. And it is in connection with the county normal training classes that the superintendent of public instruction can exert the greatest influence in properly training the rank and file of the teachers of Michigan.

In the system of public schools authorized under the administration of Superintendent Pierce there was but one certificating body, the township school inspectors; one certificate good for one year only in the township where the candidate was examined; no age limit; no specific qualifications beyond "regard to moral character, learning, and ability to teach school;" no uniformly set time for giving examinations; and, naturally, no uniform examination questions. The superintendent of public instruction's part in this highly important matter was to furnish the blank forms of certification to the

¹⁷³Report for 1901, pp. 42-43.

¹⁷⁴Act No. 241 Laws of 1903.

township officers. Supplying the forms for certificates still remains among his duties.

Up to 1867 with one exception the sole power of certification was lodged in the local board and in all matters of controversy the board's decision was final. Therefore the narrative at the outset concerns itself with the criticisms, constructive and destructive, made by the various superintendents of public instruction with respect to the methods and results of the certificating system in vogue.

The first strong objections came from Superintendent Mayhew in 1855. He was decidedly of the opinion that instead of one there should be several grades of certificates, in this way recognizing superior knowledge and teaching ability. Gradation of certificates would give teachers definite objectives to work for and would lead to self improvement. Furthermore, the teachers in the graded schools should be examined in other subjects than those required in the examination of candidates for positions in district schools. He also said that the state superintendent should be authorized to grant certificates at his discretion to well qualified and successful teachers which should be valid throughout the state:

Such a discrimination in granting certificates would confer distinction upon the meritorious and would attract young persons of enterprise and competent attainments to the business of teaching for a livelihood. It would thus give greater dignity and permanency to the creation of an instructor, and would contribute to the advancement of the interests of the general education of the State, and to the elevation of the employment of teaching to the rank of a profession.¹⁷⁵

¹⁷⁵Report for 1855-56, pp. 26-27.

And, lastly, he stressed the desirability of certificating the graduates of the Normal School without examination.

In 1857 the legislature acquiesced to this latter recommendation only. It authorized the board of instruction of the Normal School to grant teachers' diplomas to its graduates, which when signed by the members of the State Board of Education and recorded in the office of the township clerk should serve the holder as a certificate of qualification to teach in any primary school in the township.¹⁷⁰

Superintendent Hosford in 1866 joined issue with current methods both of examination of teachers and supervision of schools. At this time there was a great deal of agitation for establishing the office of county superintendent of schools. The superintendent favored such action:

With the present arrangement for examining teachers and supervising schools, persons are often placed over the schools, as instructors, who are notoriously incompetent. The examinations, as conducted in a multitude of instances, is simply a form; or, perhaps, to say that it was a mere farce, would be saying what was more nearly the truth, and not infrequently are certificates given without even the form of an examination. We are constantly receiving intelligence from different parts of the State that teachers are employed who are entirely incompetent for their work. A letter has just come to the office, saying that for years the Inspectors of a certain township had been in the constant habit of issuing certificates without even the formality of an examination, and no examination had ever been had, except one, when one of the citizens offered his services as examiner, but even then, a certificate was granted to one who was unable

¹⁷⁰Act No. 104 of 1857.

to answer a single question, and not a single school had been visited for several years. . . . The present system of examining teachers, so far as the securing of competent instructors by it is concerned, is a complete failure, and the system of school supervision, so far as the improvement of schools by it is concerned, is equally a failure.¹⁷⁷

In the following year the legislature passed a bill providing for county superintendents of schools. No educational or professional qualifications were required of these officers which is, perhaps, not strange since none was required of the head of the state system. It was the duty of these officers to examine all candidates for certificates. No one was to be certificated who did not pass a satisfactory examination in orthography, reading, writing, grammar, geography, and arithmetic. Provision was made for three grades of certificates. The superintendent of public instruction was authorized by this act to grant certificates which should duly qualify the holders to teach in any of the primary or graded schools in the state.¹⁷⁸ The latter provisions had been advocated by Superintendent Mayhew some twelve years before.

The general tendency on the part of the county superintendents of schools was to set up more rigid standards with respect to the examinations hoping thus to get a corps of teachers better qualified in both scholarship and professional skill. Superintendent Hosford comments on this tendency as follows: "These requirements at first occasioned some dissatisfaction on the part of many teachers; they thought the requirements too severe, but

¹⁷⁷Report for 1866, pp. 4-5.

¹⁷⁸Act No. 55 of 1867.

already they are expressing not only their acquiescence in the requirements, but also their hearty approval of them."¹⁷⁹

In 1875, in response to popular demand, the legislature repealed those sections of the law which had established the office of county superintendent of schools, and also the section which had authorized the superintendent of public instruction to issue certificates valid in primary and graded schools anywhere in the state.¹⁸⁰ This left the certificating authority as it was previous to 1867. It evidently was the intention of the legislature to deprive the superintendent of this power for about a month later, April 29th, the House indefinitely postponed action upon Senate Bill number ninety-three which proposed giving the state superintendent power to issue state certificates to persons "eminently qualified."

Three years later Superintendent Tarbell called the attention of the legislature to the fact that there was no provision for recognizing "in some adequate manner, the merits of teachers who have achieved prominence in the profession by their ripe scholarship and successful experience. The authority to grant a state certificate should, in my opinion, be given to the State Board of Education rather than to the Superintendent of Public Instruction. . . . I should be glad to see the duties of the State Board of Education enlarged so that it might grow to be, what it is already in many states, a strong educational body, which should advise with the Superintendent of Public Instruction in reference to all

¹⁷⁹Report for 1868, pp. 4-5.

¹⁸⁰Act No. 51 of 1875.

matters of general interest to the schools of the state.”¹⁸¹

In 1879, the year following, under the head of “An act to enlarge and define the duties of the State Board of Education” the legislature authorized the Board to hold stated meetings at which “they shall examine and may grant state certificates of qualification to such teachers as may upon a thorough and critical examination be found to possess eminent scholarship and professional ability, and shall furnish satisfactory evidence of good moral character.”¹⁸² These certificates were valid for ten years, unless revoked, and entitled the holder to teach any school anywhere in the state.

It was likewise made the duty of the Board to prepare questions suitable for the examination of teachers for the various grades of certificates and the superintendent of public instruction was directed to furnish these questions to the proper examining officers. However, no provision was made for compelling the examining officers to use the questions sent out. They were free to take them or leave them alone.

In the report of the State Board of Education for 1880 it is stated that the township superintendents were employing the questions very generally and approved of the plan since it saved them much time and tended to establish uniformity throughout the state.¹⁸³

In 1877 Superintendent Tarbell had recommended that there should be an examining body of three men who should have entire charge of examining teachers throughout the county. This he thought would make

¹⁸¹Report for 1878, p. xxxviii.

¹⁸²Act No. 231 of 1879.

¹⁸³Report for 1880, p. 93.

for greater uniformity; avoid favoritism, jealousies, and wire-pulling.¹⁸⁴ Superintendent Gower in 1878 and again in 1880 urged the same plan, that is, to take the certificating power from the township and place it in the hands of county officers.¹⁸⁵

In the consolidation and revision of the school laws in 1881 these recommendations were incorporated.¹⁸⁶ Two more subjects in which candidates were obliged to stand examinations were added to the list, namely, the theory and art of teaching and the history of the United States. The State Board of Education provided the questions for the two regular examinations as stipulated by the law but did not furnish questions for the special examinations which the county board might find necessary to hold.

Removing the examining body from the sphere of local influence resulted in just what the state superintendent had hoped—many inefficient teachers were weeded out. The average monthly wage of the men soared \$4.61 and that of the women \$4.83. The rural districts, of course, were hardest hit and did not disguise their feelings in the matter in the least. There was now competition among the employers rather than among the employed, but the district officials were assured that the law of supply and demand would soon work matters out to the equitable interests of all concerned. These conditions are comparable with those which developed after 1867 during the regime of the county superintendent of schools.

¹⁸⁴Report for 1877, p. xxv.

¹⁸⁵Report for 1880, p. 38.

¹⁸⁶Act No. 164 of 1881.

In 1887 the duty of preparing county examination questions was transferred from the State Board of Education to the superintendent of public instruction where it now remains.¹⁸⁷ This opened an avenue of great power for general supervision of teachers if used in connection with the work of teachers' institutes and teachers' reading circles. It could be made practically to guide the teachers' academic and professional preparation outside the teacher training institutions that have power to certificate. This year for the first time an age limit was put upon applicants for certificates. The legislature set this at sixteen.

Superintendent Estabrook in 1889 called attention to the New York practice of granting third grade certificates for six months, renewable on examination only and issued to the same person but twice. Superintendent Draper is quoted: "If in the course of a year's experience the teacher cannot progress sufficiently to secure a second grade certificate, it is believed that he has misapprehended his calling and will be likely to succeed better at some other employment." Nevertheless Superintendent Estabrook doubted the value of limiting by law the number of third grade certificates to be issued to any one person. If legislation of this character should be undertaken, he thought it should be supplemented by a provision fixing the shortest term for which a teacher might be employed. "If teachers are required to better prepare themselves for their work, some provision should be made to secure them in any positions they

¹⁸⁷Act No. 266 of 1887.

may have obtained and hold by virtue of this ability as teachers."¹⁸⁸

For the first time the question of reciprocal relations between states in the matter of recognizing life certificates was brought up. Propositions to develop such relationships had been made by New York and Ohio. The plan met with the approval of Michigan's Superintendent:

I would recommend such additional legislation as will empower the Superintendent of Public Instruction to endorse life certificates from any State when upon thorough investigation he is satisfied that the requirements as to scholarship, professional ability and experience are equal to the requirements in our own state, provided that the same privilege is extended to persons holding like certificates granted in Michigan.¹⁸⁹

Such authority was given the State Board of Education, but not until 1895.¹⁹⁰

In 1890 attention was called to the fact that in the great majority of cases the training in the purely professional branches of the teacher's preparation for her work was limited to individual reading and study.¹⁹¹ Superintendent Estabrook was of the opinion that the examination in the theory and art of teaching should not be the desultory thing of the past, which one without any preparation might pass, but really require some reading and thinking on the part of the candidate. Accordingly a circular was sent out to the county secretaries outlining a course upon which the examination would be based. The books suggested were White's

¹⁸⁸Report for 1889, pp. 22 ff.

¹⁸⁹Report for 1889, pp. 25-26.

¹⁹⁰Act No. 73 of 1895.

¹⁹¹Report for 1890, pp. ix ff.

Elements of Pedagogy; Swett's Method of Teaching; Putnam's Elementary Psychology; Page's Theory and Practice.

The main headings of the outline were:

- Part I. The Mental Faculties.
- Part II. The Principles of Teaching—End and Means of Education.
- Part III. Methods of Teaching.
- Part IV. School Management and Discipline.
- Part V. Methods of Teaching Special Branches.

A sample of examinations before and after taking follows:

Theory and Art (1889)

1. Give your plan of the organization of a school.
2. What are the objects of punishment?
3. What is your method of awakening a spirit of investigation among your pupils?
4. Has the teacher the right to determine what studies the pupil shall pursue?
5. Do you think that kindergarten work can be used successfully in our graded schools?
6. When and how do you prepare for conducting your recitation?
7. Describe the personal habits of a model teacher.
8. Should pupils be kept after school for any purpose whatever?
9. Name and describe the faculties of the mind in the order of their development.
10. How can you teach morals and manners?

Theory and Art. (1891)

1. Why should the teacher study psychology?
2. Name the mental faculties in the general order of their natural development.

3. What mental faculty is chiefly trained by the study of arithmetic? Of physical geography? Of reading? Of grammar?
4. Name the immediate ends or objects of elementary teaching.
5. Give some maxims of elementary teaching.
6. Give your method of calling on pupils to recite, and give your reason for it.
7. Write a programme of daily work for a common district school, and give reasons for the general order of recitations.

It is quite evident that it would be more difficult for the candidate to "bluff" the examination of 1891 than that of 1889. It is interesting to note that the pet question, the one that is repeated time and again, refers to the order of the development of the mental faculties and how they are trained.

Superintendent Fitch in 1891 brought up the question of the number of third grade certificates that should be issued to any one candidate. He recommended that some legislation should be enacted that would drive out those teachers who were content to remain on the same level of scholarship and professional skill year after year:

It requires no philosopher to see that the teacher who has ceased to make any intellectual progress has ceased to be a good teacher. Admit, as we must, that teachers are inadequately paid for their services, still it must be said that the State has a right to expect from its teachers a higher conception of duty than is shown by an ambition that is gratified by a third grade certificate.¹⁹²

Superintendent Fitch also expressed himself in favor

¹⁹²Report for 1891, p. xii.

of another normal school in the state, preferably in the Upper Peninsula. Two arguments were advanced: First, the utter incapability of one institution to meet the wants of the whole state; and, second, the difficulty of handling in one institution a larger number of students than were then enrolled:

An institution for the training of teachers, unlike a university, needs to exert an almost parental supervision over the lives and morals of its students; not only for the better moral equipment of those whom it sends forth to teach but for the purpose of guarding against the grave danger of sending out persons armed with certificates entitling them to teach in any of the public schools of the state and yet morally unfit for that highest of the teacher's duties, the upbuilding of character.¹⁹³

This was the first time, to the Superintendent's knowledge, that this particular argument had been advanced. And he submitted it as the strongest argument of all in favor of another normal school.

No immediate results came from either of these recommendations. However, in 1891, a private normal school was established at Mt. Pleasant. This was taken over by the state in 1895. The recommendation to limit the number of third grade certificates was favorably acted upon in 1893.

Superintendent Pattengill tightened the screws of the examination machine several turns. Characteristically he stated in his report for 1894 that he saw no reason for receding from his position that qualifications for teachers should be advanced. "The schools are not established in order that some one may secure a position. . . . There is enough flexibility provided in the

¹⁹³*Ibid*, p. xvi.

power which county examining boards hold, to prevent a dearth of teachers; but it is ardently hoped that such boards have stamina enough to protect the schools from lazy, incompetent or listless camp followers."

The professional part of the examination Theory and Art and School law for 1894 is given below for comparison with that of 1891. The latter was given to applicants for State certificates while that of 1894 was given to those seeking the various grades of county certificates:

Note—Applicants who have had experience in teaching are to be rated by the success they have had in the schoolroom, as judged by the commissioners, and by their loyalty and progressive spirit shown in making out required reports, attending teachers' meetings, and pursuing a good course of reading. Written statements from commissioners with markings on this branch of the topic, will be taken at face value. *Applicants coming under the above provisions, may select any three of the first eight questions in this set; others will write on all the questions.*

1. (a) What are the aims of physical education in school?
(b) Tell briefly how you would give physical instruction to your pupils.
2. In recording class standing, would you recognize anything but results shown in the recitation? Why?
3. (a) What methods of teaching spelling would you follow?
(b) How much oral spelling would you advise in primary classes?
(c) Compare briefly the relative merits of oral and written spelling.
4. (a) Why should the teacher give a thorough drill on the fundamental processes in arithmetic?

- (b) Give your method of teaching children the first principles of percentage.
- 5. Should pupils be taught to use marks of punctuation before beginning the study of grammar? Give your reasons for your answer.
- 6. What most important advantage has the topical method of conducting a recitation in geography and history?
- 7. (a) Name three powers of the mind which are developed and strengthened by the study of drawing.
(b) Mention three studies in which drawing may be made a great help.
- 8. (a) On what general principles do you intend to administer the discipline of your school?
(b) What use do you intend to make of rewards and punishments as incentive to good conduct?
(c) Give your opinion for corporal punishment as a means of forming character.
- 9. (a) What constitutes the board of school inspectors?
(b) How and to whom may the electors of a district appeal from the decision of the board of school inspectors?
- 10. Is there any law in Michigan authorizing districts having less than one hundred children to establish a district library? If so, state the provisions of that law.

In the academic subjects the superintendent's avowed purpose was to demand better scholarship, wider reading and wherever possible to stress the principle of cause and effect. His plan was to have several hundred questions made out by experts in the various fields and from these he set the examination questions. A comparison of these sets of questions shows very clearly the possible supervisory power of examinations over a school system.

In this year the legislature raised the age limit of

applicants for certificates to seventeen. It also required that all first grade examination papers favorably considered by the board of school examiners be sent to the state department and that this grade of certificate might not be used in a county other than that where issued except it be approved and countersigned by the superintendent of public instruction.¹⁹⁴ In 1901 any applicant for a first grade certificate who might think his work had not received due credit was given the right to appeal to the superintendent of public instruction. If he approved of the grade of work done, the county board of school examiners was obligated to issue the certificate unless the members could convince the superintendent that it should not be granted. In this year the minimum age of applicants was raised to eighteen.¹⁹⁵

The year 1901, too, marks the entrance once more of the superintendent of public instruction as a certificating agent. Under certain conditions referring especially to scope of preparation and to recognized schools in which instruction in kindergarten work, music and drawing was given, the superintendent was granted power to endorse the regulation certificate held, whereupon the licensee became a qualified teacher in a special field and entitled to draw from school funds the same as were the teachers of the time-honored academic subjects.¹⁹⁶ In 1905 this act was amended to the effect that the holder of a legal certificate or diploma who was also qualified in a special field of instruction might be granted a special

¹⁹⁴Act No. 34 of 1893.

¹⁹⁵Act No. 99 of 1901.

¹⁹⁶Act No. 166 of 1901.

certificate to that effect by the state superintendent.¹⁹⁷ This began the practice of granting specific certificates of proficiency to kindergarten teachers and to teachers of music and drawing. In 1915 the provision was further extended to include teachers of domestic science, manual training, commercial branches, and physical training.¹⁹⁸

Attention has been called to the position taken by various superintendents of public instruction with respect to limiting the number of third grade certificates which should be granted any one person. As the examination in school law and the theory and art of teaching was identical for all grades of county certificates, the demand for greater proficiency, therefore, was in the knowledge of subject matter. This meant for the higher grade certificate in the first place a greater number of subjects and in the second place a greater knowledge of those subjects in which all candidates were examined regardless of the grade of certificate for which they were applicants. Superintendent Wright in his report for 1909-1910 introduced a new factor—greater demand on the purely professional side:

Michigan should pass a law whereby no person shall be allowed to begin teaching in the rural school unless he or she shall have had at least six weeks of normal training. We could not think of enlisting the services of any untrained person in any other profession. It is my opinion that the rural schools of Michigan should have teachers who have had at least this amount of training. By the aid of the State Normal Schools which give a term six weeks long during each summer and the county normal

¹⁹⁷Act No. 24 of 1905.

¹⁹⁸Act No. 194 of 1915.

schools in forty-three of the counties, we believe this will not work any hardship.¹⁹⁹

Four years later Superintendent Keeler expressed the hope that the legislature of 1915 would pass a law requiring at least six weeks of professional training before granting a third grade certificate, and twelve weeks and twenty-four weeks respectively before granting a second and a first grade certificate. In this training they should observe model work and be required to do some teaching.²⁰⁰

This recommendation has had far reaching influence on the examination system and on the professional training of teachers. The legislature of 1915 did enact a law along the lines which the Superintendent recommended but not quite so drastic. It provided that no county certificates of any grade be granted to any person who had not completed at least six weeks of professional training or in lieu of this six months of study in an approved school maintaining a four year course above the high school.²⁰¹

In 1921 the legislature went still further by substituting professional training in recognized institutions for set teachers' examinations thus, for all practical purposes, doing away with teachers' examinations for the various grades of certificates:

After September first nineteen hundred twenty-five, the board of school examiners on the dates specified in this act for the issuing of certificates; and on such other dates as the commissioners shall deem advisable, shall grant certificates without examination,

¹⁹⁹Report for 1909-10, p. 6.

²⁰⁰Report for 1913-14, p. 13.

²⁰¹Act No. 7 of 1915.

to persons, in such form as the superintendent of public instruction shall prescribe licensing as teachers all persons who have attained the age of eighteen years, and who shall be found qualified in respect to good moral character, learning and ability to instruct and govern a school. Said board shall grant third grade certificates to those persons who shall have completed a minimum of one year of professional training; said board shall grant second grade certificates to those persons who shall have completed at least one and one-third years of professional training; and said board shall grant first grade certificates to those persons who shall have completed, at least one and two-thirds years of professional training in such schools or schools as are designated for six weeks' professional training in section five of this act.²⁰²

The possibilities of influencing through examinations the growth of teachers by means of the requirements laid down with respect to subject matter and the character of professional training will soon be a thing of the past. The law provides for professional training but is silent on the matter of growth in the various fields of human experience. No teacher may safely neglect this aspect of preparation while becoming a better school room technician. There is room here for further constructive work on the part of future superintendents of public instruction.

The main constructive work in the field of teacher training is credited to the following state superintendents of public instruction:

| | | |
|--------|------|--|
| Pierce | 1837 | Branches to provide training for teachers. |
| Mayhew | 1848 | Recommended that normal departments be established in union schools. Provided small school for observational purposes. |

²⁰²Act No. 186 of 1921.

- 1855 Recommended that the superintendent of public instruction be authorized to grant teachers' certificates.
Recommended that different grades of certificates be issued.
Recommended that normal school graduates be certificated without further examination.
- Gregory 1859 Recommended teachers' class in union schools; students to be certificated by the state superintendent.
- 1860 Asked legislative permission to select one school in each county for the purpose of training teachers. Course of study and certification to be in control of state superintendent.
State aid to be provided.
- 1861 Recommended that a department for the training of teachers be established in the University; also in high schools and colleges.
- 1867 Superintendent granted power to issue state certificates.
- Hostord 1872 Recommended normal department in colleges to be controlled by superintendent and board of education.
- 1873 Asked for normal department in the University.
- Tarbell 1878 Recommended that the board of education be authorized to grant state certificates.
- Estabrook 1889 Asked for power to reciprocate with other states in granting certificates.
- Fitch 1891 Recommended that the number of third grade certificates issued to any one person be limited in number.
- Pattengill 1893 Made teachers' examination more difficult.

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| Fall | 1901 | Recommended the county normal training class. |
| Wright | 1909 | Recommended that no certificate be given to any candidate with less than six weeks professional training. |
| Keeler | 1915 | Legislature enacted law requiring six weeks of professional training of all candidates for certification, or in lieu of this six months of study in a collegiate institution. |
| Johnson | 1921 | Professional training to take the place of teachers' examinations for all grades of certificates after 1925. |

Bulletins issued by the State Department of Public Instruction affecting the training of teachers:

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| Fall | 1901 | Institute outline. |
| | 1903 | County normal training classes. |
| Kelley | 1906 | Teachers' Institutes in Michigan. |
| | 1906 | Plan of work for summer institutes. |
| | 1906 | Course of study for county normal institutes. |
| Wright | 1908 | Course of study for county normal institutes. |
| | 1909 | County normal training classes. |
| | 1912 | County normal training classes in Michigan. |
| Keeler | 1916 | Manual and course of study for county normal training classes. |
| | 1917 | Word study and spelling for county normal training classes. |
| Johnson | 1922 | Survey of the needs of Michigan State Normal schools. |
| | 1923 | Manual and course of study for county normal training classes. |

CHARITABLE AND CORRECTIONAL INSTITUTIONS

“To instruct the deaf no art could ever reach, nor can improve them, and no wisdom teach.”

Thus wrote the Roman poet, Lucretius, in the first century B. C. and such was the general impression until the sixteenth century when Jerome Cardan, an Italian, in speculating upon the matter arrived at the conclusion that the deaf might be taught; for it seemed perfectly clear to him that written characters and ideas might be connected without the intervention of sounds.

During the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries private instruction for the deaf was provided in a number of instances but the larger movement began in the eighteenth century with the establishment of schools in France by de l'Epee, in Scotland by Braidwood, and in Saxony by Heinicke. In the early development of instruction all these schools used the oral method but the French school soon turned to the manual method, not because it was better but in order to teach the large number of pupils enrolled in the school more economically.

The Braidwood school seems first to have been known in America. In the early nineteenth century funds were raised for the purpose of sending T. H. Gallaudet to Europe for the purpose of learning how the deaf were instructed. Naturally, he went to the Scotch school but was unable to make satisfactory arrangements for study. He therefore turned to France and was cordially received by Abbe Sicard, successor to de l'Epee. The result of Gallaudet's visit to France was the introduc-

tion of the manual method of teaching in the school opened at Hartford in 1817 rather than the oral method which doubtless would have been chosen had he been privileged to study methods of instruction in the Braidwood school.

In the history of its development definite instruction for the blind came at a later date than that for the deaf. The first school established for this purpose was *L'Institution Nationale des Jeunes Aveugles* by Valentin Haüy in 1784. He was also the inventor of embossed books for the blind.

The American pioneer in the movement for educating the blind was Dr. John Fisher of Boston who had become interested in this problem while a medical student in Paris. Through his influence the legislature passed an act incorporating "The New England Asylum for the Blind" in 1829. Dr. Samuel Howe was sent abroad to prepare himself for the work and upon his return established a school for the blind in Boston in 1831. In the same year the "New York Institution for the Blind" was founded and in the following year a similar institution was established in Philadelphia.

In Michigan the legislature of 1848 made provisions for the establishing of an asylum for the deaf, dumb, and blind, also an asylum for the insane. The control of the asylum for the sense defectives was vested in a board of five trustees to be elected annually by joint action of the legislature. This board was directed to make an annual report to the legislature.²⁰³ Statistical

²⁰³Act No. 187 of 1848.

information with respect to the number of such defectives was to be supplied by the assessors of each township and ward in the state.²⁰⁴

In the constitution of 1850 direct reference was made to this duty of the state under Education, Article XIII, section 10, though such instruction as might be provided was not made a part of the state educational system.

The report of the trustees in 1851 shows that one of the members had visited asylums for the insane at Boston, Providence, and Trenton; for the deaf and dumb at Hartford; and for the blind at New York. Mr. Weed, the principal of the Hartford institution, had collected opinions from leading workers in the field of the education of sense defectives in Europe and all had expressed themselves as opposed to the education of the deaf and dumb with the blind. The only reason for such practice, so it was stated, could be solely on the ground of economy.

Evidently this was the major motive of the board for it reported in favor of erecting a building which should serve as a wing of a main building to be completed at some future time. Suitable school rooms were to be provided for the separate instruction of each group of defectives. "Should the numbers increase, and experience show that they could be better taught in separate institutions, one or the other could be established elsewhere, when our means may be more ample."²⁰⁵

In 1854 a small building was provided in the village of Flint in compliance with the law, and instruction

²⁰⁴*Joint Resolution No. 46 of 1848.*

²⁰⁵*Joint Documents for 1851, No. II.*

began with eight children—seven deaf and one blind.

In the report for 1855 Superintendent Shearman recommended that

The Institution for the Deaf, Dumb and Blind, already established, should be placed under the educational system of the State. It is a most important and interesting Department of Public Instruction, and should be in such position that the chief Educational officer could make it the subject of his special care and attention.²⁰⁶

Connection between this type of education and the State Department of Public Instruction was not made, however, until 1881. In the revision of the school law among the powers and duties of the superintendent of public instruction it is stated that the superintendent shall visit the institutions for the deaf and dumb and the school for the blind, and meet with the governing board of these institutions at least once each year.²⁰⁷

In a further act providing for the uniform regulation of certain state institutions it was made the duty of the governing board to present a report to the superintendent of public instruction giving the following data and whatever information the superintendent might desire:

First, The condition of the educational interests of the institution;

Second, The number and names of the various professors, tutors, and instructors;

Third, The number of students and pupils in the several departments, and in the different classes;

Fourth, The courses of study pursued, and the books of instruction used.²⁰⁸

²⁰⁶Report for 1855, p. 12.

²⁰⁷Act No. 164 of 1881.

²⁰⁸Act No. 206 of 1881.

As indicated in the Acts quoted above the education of the deaf and dumb, and of the blind was carried on in separate institutions. This separation was brought about by the legislature of 1879.²⁰⁹ The new institution was erected at Lansing.

Comments by the superintendent of public instruction on the work being done in educating the deaf and the blind were but infrequently made and of little importance. The reports of the supervising officers were not published annually and after 1888 ceased to appear at all. They were doubtless omitted because they were made to other departments of the government to which the superintendent of public instruction's report was also made. There seemed to have been no good reason for duplication.

State legislation with respect to the education of the deaf and dumb up to 1899 had been concerned with the institution at Flint. The legislature in that year provided for day schools for the deaf in such places as could maintain an average attendance of not less than three deaf children over three years of age. Such instruction could be offered only by permission of the state superintendent of public instruction to whom the board in charge was obligated to report. The sum of not more than one hundred fifty-dollars per pupil was authorized to be paid to the treasurer of the board maintaining such school or schools. All persons appointed to teach in any day school for the deaf were required to have had special training for the work and at least one year's experience in teaching deaf children. The oral method

²⁰⁹Act No. 250 of 1879.

of instruction was stipulated and if after a fair trial of nine months it was found that a child was unable to learn, no further expense for his education should be incurred.²¹⁰

In the report for 1899 Superintendent Hammond said:

"There are in each of these schools (Detroit and Grand Rapids) two teachers and about fifteen pupils. But one room is provided, both teachers, working in the same room and doing individual work with pupils. I have visited both these schools twice; and though not claiming to know much concerning the instruction of the deaf, the apparent results were gratifying; but it is yet too soon to comment specifically concerning the success of the experiment now being tried of giving oral instruction to deaf children."²¹¹

In 1901 Superintendent Fall prepared a list of rules and regulations to be followed in the general conduct of the day schools. They are purely administrative and offer no suggestions with respect to educational policy.²¹²

In Superintendent Kelley's report for 1905 the war of methods, oral or manual, was touched upon. His own reaction to the question was as follows:

It is therefore my opinion that while an earnest, even an heroic effort should be made to teach every deaf mute speech, it should not be continued beyond two years, except with very young children, unless very satisfactory results are obtained, and no teacher in the day schools for the deaf should from any personal motives or a desire to keep up a certain number of pupils, forget for one moment the real interest of the deaf child and delude herself into believing that although the child shows unsatisfactory response to her efforts yet he will in time learn to speak

²¹⁰Act No. 176 of 1899.

²¹¹Report for 1899, p. 5.

²¹²Report for 1901, pp. 56-58.

fairly well and that a small amount of speech, even though understood by very few people, is better than the sign language which he might in the same time learn, although such sign language would cover a much wider field in the realm of conversation.²¹³

Until 1919 the state made no provision for the education of the blind other than in the institution at Lansing. In that year the legislature authorized "the Superintendent of Public Instruction to afford suitable instruction and vocational training to adult blind persons in their respective homes and communities, with a view to meeting their educational needs and enabling them to contribute to their own support" For the proper direction and supervision of the work he was authorized to employ not more than two assistants.

The legislature of 1923 placed the education of the blind on the same basis as the education of the deaf by permitting the establishing of day schools in the local community upon the petition of parents or guardians of five or more resident children who by reason of being blind or having defective vision cannot be educated with normal children. Courses of study, adequacy of methods of instruction, qualification of teachers, necessary equipment for day schools for both the blind and the deaf must comply with the requirements prescribed by the superintendent of public instruction.²¹⁴

The legislature also authorized the board of education of any school district to establish and maintain classes for crippled children under the same conditions both with respect to number of children necessary to

²¹³Report for 1905, p. 44.

²¹⁴Act No. 122 of 1923.

establish the school and the requirements to be made by the superintendent of public instruction.²¹⁵

CORRECTIONAL INSTITUTIONS

Agitation for securing conditions which would reclaim youthful offenders instead of hardening them into ways of crime through association with habitual criminals began in England in the last years of the 18th century. In 1824 the movement reached the United States and resulted in the founding of the House of Refuge in New York City. Philadelphia founded such an institution in 1826 and Boston established the "House of Reformation for Juvenile Offenders" in 1827.

Historically the juvenile reform school is an offshoot of the prison and has been managed, until recently in the better schools, largely by the same methods and traditions with the exception of tempering conditions somewhat because of the age of the inmates.

It has long been held that education is well nigh a panacea for pauperism and crime, consequently education in its various characters must be the main item of thought in the sociology of juvenile reform. The problems that confront the superintendent of such an institution from the educational point of view are peculiar to themselves, the public school system offers little of value or suggestion.

Governor Bingham in his message to the legislature of 1855 made the following statement:

The presence of several boys and youths among the more

²¹⁵Act No. 313 of 1923.

hardened criminals in the State Prison, induces me to urge upon your attention the propriety of establishing a house of refuge or correction, where a milder course of treatment, more especially adapted to their reformation, can be employed. The State has not discharged its duty to these unfortunate victims of ignorance and temptation, until it has made provision by a proper system of discipline, for their instruction in useful knowledge, morals and piety—taught them some mechanical trade or other proper employment, and prepared them, upon their release from confinement to become good citizens and useful members of society, as they return to its duties and privileges.

The legislature acted favorably upon the Governor's recommendation and established in 1855 a "House of Correction for Juvenile Offenders." The institution was located at Lansing and was ready for occupancy in 1856.²¹⁶

The management of the institution was placed in a board of six commissioners and it was made the duty of this board to mature a system of government "for preserving order, for enforcing discipline, for imparting instruction, for preserving health, and generally for the proper physical, intellectual and moral training of the offenders" No mention is made of the superintendent of public instruction as was likewise the case in the establishment of the school for the deaf, dumb, and blind.

In 1859 the legislature changed the name of the institution to "Reform School"²¹⁷ and also placed the school under the supervision of the superintendent of public instruction.²¹⁸

²¹⁶Act No. 78 of 1855.

²¹⁷Act No. 139 of 1859.

²¹⁸Act No. 239 of 1859.

In the report of the Board of Control for 1859 it was stated that no suitable accommodations for the reception of girls into the institution had been provided. It was recommended that a separate building be erected on the Reform School grounds for this purpose. Superintendent Gregory in the report for 1860 also recommended that an institution for girls similar to that for boys should be provided by the state. The recommendation was reported in 1864 and attention was also called to the crowded condition of the Reform School and the inadequate provisions for school instruction.

In 1868 the cottage system was begun and a few years later under the superintendency of Frank M. Howe, the twenty foot fence, iron doors in the dormitories, and grates at the windows had become things of the past.

In 1871 an act was passed establishing the State Public School for Dependent Children at Coldwater. It was provided by the act that

The children in such school shall be maintained and educated in the branches usually taught in the common schools, and shall have proper physical and moral training.²¹⁹

In 1879 the Reform School for Girls which had been advocated some twenty years earlier was founded.²²⁰

With respect to all these reformatory institutions there is nothing in the reports to show any appreciable influence on their conditions which have originated with the various superintendents of public instruction. What ideas may have been presented by them in the meetings of the board of control, if any, are not available. Yet

²¹⁹Act No. 172 of 1871.

²²⁰Act No. 133 of 1879.

a general power and duty remained in the office by virtue of the Act of 1917 which provided that

The Superintendent of Public Instruction is hereby authorized to supervise and direct the instruction and training of the inmates in all public institutions in the state where juvenile delinquents are confined or detained by order of any court, parent or guardian. No course of study shall be pursued in any of such institutions which shall not have been approved by the Superintendent of Public Instruction, and he shall prescribe for each institution the course of study it shall follow.²²¹

At the next meeting of the legislature the following addition was made:

No person shall be permitted to teach in any public institution of this state, as provided in this act, whose educational qualifications shall not have been approved by the superintendent of public instruction.²²²

In 1921 the legislature established a "State Welfare Department" and provided within this department for a "State Institution Commission" with power to conduct all matters concerning the charitable and correctional institutions which have been mentioned.²²³ This act eliminates the State Department of Public Instruction in all respects, as such, from influencing the educational work carried on within these institutions.

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| Shearman | 1855 | Recommended that the institution for the deaf, dumb, and blind be made a part of the state educational system. |
| | 1859 | Instruction in the Reform School placed under the supervision of the Superintendent. |
| Gregory | 1860 | Recommended the establishment of a Reform School for Girls. |

²²¹Act No. 137 of 1917.

²²²Act No. 17 of 1919.

²²³Act No. 163 of 1921, Sec. 7.

| | | |
|---------|------|---|
| Hosford | 1871 | State Public School for Dependent Children founded at Coldwater. |
| Gower | 1879 | Reform School for Girls at Adrian. Provision for a separate school for the blind. |
| Hammond | 1899 | Day schools for the deaf established. |
| Fall | 1901 | Prepared rules and regulations for the day schools for the deaf. |
| Keeler | 1917 | Superintendent directed to supervise all instruction and training of inmates in all public institutions of an educational character. |
| | 1919 | Superintendent authorized to pass on educational qualifications of all teachers in above institutions. Educational facilities to be provided for the teaching of adult blind. |
| Johnson | 1921 | State Welfare Act places control of public institutions of a charitable and correctional character in a State Institute Commission. |
| | 1923 | Provision made for day schools for blind and crippled children. |

PRIVATE AND SECTARIAN SCHOOLS

The early settlers of America regardless of the country from which they came were habituated to a close relationship between church and school. A number of the colonies, particularly those in which the Established Church dominated the religious point of view, were also exponents of the theory that education for those able to afford it was a matter of private not of public concern; such as were unable to pay for schooling were the proper charge of church societies. These societies maintained their schools without tuition fees as a rule, and emphasized religious instruction. Hence the two con-

ceptions that education is closely connected with religion, and the practice of maintaining private schools was a part of our early educational tradition.

Though the schools were under ecclesiastical control, nevertheless during the colonial period grants were frequently made by the state to aid in the support of schools which were distinctly religious rather than civic in their aims. Connecticut made several grants to Yale, and Massachusetts to Harvard both of which were founded primarily for the purpose of training ministers. Maryland made appropriations for county schools which were, it was stipulated, to be taught by masters who belonged to the Church of England. And during the national period such appropriations were made, for the most part to particular charitable institutions, at one time or another by California, Indiana, Mississippi, New Jersey, New Mexico, New York, Pennsylvania and Texas. In no case, however, was a general plan for public support of religious schools established.

With the extension of suffrage to a manhood basis and with the developing national and educational consciousness, education began, during the second quarter of the last century, to be looked upon as a universal enterprise which could be controlled properly for the benefit of the state by no less a unit than the state itself. And as the state as such had no religion it could not recognize anything pertaining to sectarianism within the sphere of its educational control. Public schools were organized for the benefit of the public, not for any particular sect.

With the development of the primary school fund and

the establishment of the principle of taxation for school support the proper distribution of the revenue became a serious problem. To allow aid to any one denomination in the support of its schools carried with it the necessity of distributing the funds to all other denominations, and with little or no possible control on the part of the state to achieve the ends of citizenship through education. The enterprise was too crucial to allow the means of realizing it to be controlled by various ecclesiastical authorities. Accordingly legislative provisions were made either by statute or constitutional mandate which forbade the use of public money for the support of sectarian schools, and in the public schools forbade sectarian texts, sectarian teaching and religious tests for either pupils or teachers. Public funds were for the benefit of public schools and none other.²²⁴

Throughout the colonies the private school was a most important educational institution and this continued to be the case for many years of the national period. The lack of support given the town grammar schools of New England laid the foundations for the development of the private academy. And the state aid granted the privately controlled academies of New York built up a strong non-public system of secondary schools as in Massachusetts. These schools made a tuition charge and for the most part gave religious instruction but not of a sectarian character, and so as a matter of fact helped bridge the gulf between the avowedly sectarian schools of the early period and the non-sectarian public schools of the present.

²²⁴See Appendix "H" for a general survey of this development.

The academy development eliminated the Latin grammar school, reached the peak of its development about 1850, and was in turn eliminated by the development of the publicly supported and controlled high school.

Michigan's part in this phase of educational development began with the second report of Superintendent Pierce. The question arose with respect to the advisability of chartering private, denominational colleges. The Superintendent was not so much concerned about such institutions being private or denominational as that they were colleges and hence competitors of the University. The main arguments against their incorporation as stated by Superintendent Pierce were as follows:

1. If granted to one, charters must be granted to all that apply.

2. Insufficient support and facilities of all kinds mark such institutions in the great majority of cases and hence the standards of scholarship are lowered.

3. The history of such institutions in the United States shows them to be weak and inefficient.

4. The opinions of leading educators, as shown by letters addressed to him, are not in favor of chartering private colleges especially at this stage of educational development in Michigan.

5. Such institutions will endanger the growth and prosperity of the University of Michigan by distracting from it the interest of the citizens to whom the University belongs. This may be obviated by granting to the University the monopoly of conferring degrees.

With respect to the non-sectarian policy of the Uni-

versity and the consequent attitude of many of the citizens toward it, he said:

Though some may ultimately refuse all co-operation and harmony of action, with the public, in founding and rearing up an institution worthy of the state, and of the age, yet it is believed that the liberal minded of all classes, including the great body of the people, will rally round the "University of Michigan" and give it countenance and a firm, unwavering support. It is the property of all; and hence equally the interest and duty of all to do it; its object is the cultivation of intellect—the acquisition of knowledge—the formation of noble minds—high moral attainments and elevation of character. Education in all its branches is common ground—all parties can here meet—all sects can here unite—the object is the highest culture and improvement of all conditions. If we cannot come together and unite on this ground as citizens of one community, to promote the public good, we can meet and co-operate no where this side the grave.²²⁵

The matter was shortly brought before the legislature by a petition to incorporate the Trustees of Michigan College. The committee to which the petition was referred reported in favor of incorporating colleges, the Superintendent to the contrary notwithstanding. The report, in part, was as follows:

They (the committee) deem it the duty of the Legislature, not to prevent all improvements but to afford facilities to the progress of general education; to speak in words of encouragement rather than of restraint, to those who volunteer to aid it, and not from an overweening fondness for one particular system, place all others under the ban of power . . .

An institution, under the immediate supervision and control of the government, with an endowment of one million dollars, and all the attendant patronage, cannot be prostrated or impeded in its progress by any voluntary association, founded upon individual

²²⁵Report for 1838, pp. 26-27.

munificence. The true secret of the success of every such institution, is found in the enterprise, learning and capacity of those at its head

The matter of satisfying all religious points of view within the state by a non-sectarian institution seemed not so easy to the committee as it did to the Superintendent; and giving the University the sole power to grant degrees, the committee thought, was a practice that the state should not countenance:

In our own community, there exists every variety of religious and political opinion, and so strong are men's attachments to their own particular creeds, that any legislative attempts to change or modify them by the course of instruction or otherwise; any system which seeks to make all coalesce in one set of opinions, or to inculcate indifference to all, or which erects a barrier to even the caprices of men must necessarily prove odious and unavailing. Whatever may be the theories of philosophers and speculatists, among the mass of mankind, religion is not supposed to exist without creed, and to use the language of another, "he is a rash man, indeed, and little conversant with human nature, and especially has he a very erroneous estimate of the character of the people of this country, who supposes that a feeling of this kind is either to be trifled with or despised; it will assuredly cause itself to be respected." One obvious effect of the system recommended will be to drive from the State every young man wishing to obtain a degree, but unwilling from whatever cause to prosecute his studies in the University. The majority of the committee deem it unjust to individuals and the State, to confer on the State University a monopoly of college honors. It is the right of every parent and guardian, and the one which we may be assured will be insisted on, to educate the child or ward in his own way; and it is furthermore the right of the student himself, that the road to literary honors should be opened to him by his own state, in a manner accordant with his own feelings and prin-

ciples; and it is the correspondent duty of the State, to cherish and encourage all her sons in the way to distinction and usefulness, in order that she may reap her just share of the glory of their achievements.²²⁶

The report of the committee, which the legislature followed, represents the policy which the state has pursued toward non-public educational institutions rather than that set forth by Superintendent Pierce. In fact with respect to all his successors in office he stands alone on the policy of exclusion.

In 1855 a general act was passed under which educational institutions might be incorporated. Provision was made for the visitation and examination of such institutions by the superintendent of public instruction and also by a committee of three annually appointed by the superintendent. It was stipulated that no religious tests be required of students.²²⁷

The objectives of the committee were doubtless the same as that of the committee which annually inspected the University. In the words of the Chairman of the committee of 1851:

We suppose this law was intended to secure to the public a means of full and accurate information concerning the University, additional to and independent of all other means, and we believe the accomplishment of this object to be highly important, both to the people and the University itself.

In 1885 the statutes regulating the incorporation of educational institutions provided for the appointment by the superintendent of public instruction of a State Board of Visitors to be approved by the Board of Edu-

²²⁶Report for 1863, pp. 14-15.

²²⁷Act No. 39 of 1855.

cation. The duties of the Board are stated with some detail.²²⁸

In 1893 the clause providing for annual inspection of collegiate institutions was repealed and the matter of visitation was left to the discretion of the superintendent. He was given power to appoint a committee of three members for the purpose whenever in his judgment inspection seemed advisable.²²⁹

An act passed by the Legislature of 1911 directed the superintendent that

Upon evidence that the property is at any time less than is required by this act, or that the corporation is not complying with the other provisions of this act, he shall serve reasonable notice on the corporation to remedy the defects, and in case the deficiency is not corrected within the time fixed by him, he may institute proceedings at law for the dissolution of the corporation.²³⁰

The objections made in the early history of the movement seem to be met by this act. If support is insufficient, if educational facilities are inadequate, if degrees are granted on a basis of low scholarship, it is within the power of the state to do away with the institution.

Turning now to schools of lower grade we find that Superintendent Sawyer in 1842 considered the private schools of Michigan to be more efficient than the common or public schools. He said, ". . . it is altogether fair to presume that, if the public schools could be forced up to the standards of the private ones, the latter would, as a general thing cease." But the idea of forcing out the private school by legislative action was foreign to

²²⁸Act No. 99 of 1885.

²²⁹Act No. 103 of 1893.

²³⁰Act No. 231 of 1911.

his conception of individual rights even though such schools tended to set up "odious distinctions" and occasion "those grades in society which result in so many evils both of feeling and conduct." And further:

No people on the face of the earth can be so free as those, among whom education rightly conducted and rightly valued, is most equally and generally diffused. It becomes, then, a question of intense moment, for the people of Michigan, in withholding the proper stimulus from their own schools, and thus giving it to their more successful rivals, are sapping the foundations of that very liberty and equality in which they glory.²³¹

But in 1848 Superintendent Mayhew in discussing the difficulty of securing reports from the private schools did not look upon their work quite so favorably as did his predecessors:

In the majority of cases they are inferior to our common schools, being taught by persons who shrink from the ordeal of an examination before the constituted authorities, or who have been rejected by a board of school inspectors for mental incapacity or moral obliquity. Even when select schools be what the term indicates, they cannot be safely relied upon for the education of republican youth.²³²

Superintendent Mayhew, however, attempts no solution of the difficulty—other than appealing to the spirit of democracy which should always be behind the public schools.

In the report for 1851 is found a brief history of the Detroit schools by D. Bethune Duffield in which he stated that in 1845 the Detroit Board of Education encountered "a storm which came very near wrecking the whole system—I refer to our first encounter with that

²³¹Report for 1842, pp. 58-59.

²³²Report for 1848, p. 24.

perplexing, yet all important subject, the proper introduction of the Bible into the public school." After the zeal of Protestant and Catholic partisans had abated somewhat the Board settled the difficulty by voting that any teacher might open school by reading without comment from any version of the Bible he might choose. The penalty for commenting on the material read was dismissal from the system.

In 1853 the storm broke out again over the division of the public school money. A memorial to the legislature was presented by a large number of petitioners from Detroit, which is particularly remarkable for its definition of a free school:

Your petitioners would not wish to be understood as being opposed to education; on the contrary they are prepared to bear every reasonable burden your Honorable Body are willing to impose on them, to promote the cause of education, providing that our Schools be free indeed. But they do not consider schools free when the law imposes on parents the necessity of giving their children such an education as their conscience cannot approve of. But that your Honorable Body may not be ignorant of what they understand by free schools, your petitioners wish to say that in their opinions, schools can be free only, when the business of school teaching be placed on the same legal footing as the other learned professions, when all may teach who will, their success depending as in other cases, on their fitness for their profession, and the satisfaction they may render to the public; that in all cases the parent be left free to choose the teacher to whom he will entrust the education of his child, as he is left to choose his physician, his lawyer, etc.; that each person teaching any public school in the State should be entitled to draw from the public school fund, such sums as the law might provide for every child so taught by the month, quarter, or otherwise, on producing such evidence as the law might require in such cases.

Schools established on such principles are what your petitioners understand by free schools.²³³

A counter-petition by Bishop McCoskey of the Protestant Episcopal Church was also presented. According to his view:

It will place the whole school fund of this State in the hands of religious bodies or sects, and entrust to them the education of the children of the State; for the right, if given to one, will be claimed by each and by all. Whatever opinion the undersigned may entertain in reference to the system and effects of common school education, he begs leave to say, that he has no wish or desire to interfere with, or in any way alter, or abridge the system which has been the pride of the State, and which has furnished to so many thousands of the children the means of obtaining a high secular education; nor does he wish that the fund so generously granted to the people of this State, and so carefully guarded by her Legislatures, and so highly prized by her citizens should be used for the promotion of sectarian strife and bitterness.²³⁴

The legislative committee, E. S. Moore, Chairman, reported against granting the petition from the Catholic constituency on the grounds that:

1. If the petition were granted, the primary school system would be destroyed since every religious sect would claim its due proportion.

2. It is the duty of every citizen to contribute toward the education of all who are to become citizens on the basis of the welfare and safety of the state.

3. The instruction given in sectarian schools might not fulfill the intention of the state in ordaining a system of public instruction.

4. Such action would be a violation of the constitution.²³⁵

²³³Report for 1853, p. 191.

²³⁴*Ibid*, pp. 205-6.

²³⁵*Ibid*, pp. 191-193.

There was but indifferent support given to the bill in either house and the question seems to have been quite thoroughly laid at rest so far as legislation on the division of funds is concerned.

Mention has been made in another chapter of the branches of the University and their final collapse. "In their place," said Superintendent Mayhew, "have sprung up Private Schools, Denominational Institutions, Incorporated Academies, and Seminaries of Learning of various grades, to which our citizens have been accustomed to look for the accomplishment of this work." None of these institutions received any aid from the state for this work nor were they subject in any real way to control by the state. The Superintendent, therefore, submitted to the legislature in 1855 the proposition that state aid be given these institutions. In return for this they might be required (1) to submit to inspection, (2) to have a certain amount of capital, (3) to make an annual report, (4) to offer a course of study which should prepare students to enter the State University or any college in the United States. The matter was not pressed by the Superintendent and no legislative action was taken.

The development of union schools, and of high schools after 1859, settled conclusively the question of the general public demand for preparatory schools. The gap in the system made by the elimination of the branches was filled from within the public school system itself by development upward.

However, private and parochial and sectarian schools are still offering instruction in Michigan and in 1921 the

state took definite steps with respect to controlling them. The superintendent of public instruction by the terms of this act is given power to supervise all such schools, and such schools shall with respect to sanitary conditions, to courses of study, and to qualifications of teachers measure up to the standards provided by the general school laws of the state. The teaching of sectarian doctrines in private, denominational, and parochial schools is made no concern of the state but is left within the sphere of individual rights. And it is also clearly implied that public control in no wise implies public support of such non-public institutions.

1838 Opposed to private colleges.

1855 Legislative act permitting incorporation of colleges.

Superintendent directed to personally inspect and annually to appoint a board of visitors for each incorporated literary institution.

1885 A single board of visitors for all incorporated literary institutions to be appointed by the Superintendent with the approval of the Board of Education.

1893 Board of visitors to be appointed by the Superintendent and to make inspections at his discretion.

1911 Power given to the Superintendent to institute proceedings to dissolve the corporations of such literary institutions as were not living up to the specifications of the law.

1845 The question of reading the Bible in the schools was raised in Detroit.

1853 Memorial to the legislature with respect to apportioning public money to Catholic schools.

1855 Proposed state aid for non-public educational institutions.

1921 Supervision of private and parochial schools placed with the Superintendent of Public Instruction.

PUBLIC SCHOOL STATISTICS

In an earlier chapter the duties of the first superintendent of public instruction as defined by the Constitution of 1835 and the statutes of 1837 have been stated. Prominent among these duties was that of securing information from the responsible school officers with respect to school conditions, and from these reports a proper conception of the progress and needs of the schools of the state was to be derived.

With respect to the value of such information Superintendent Pierce in 1838 said:

The importance of *statistical* knowledge is becoming every year, more and more apparent. It is only by such information as statistics furnish, that the wants of a community can be ascertained, and its progress in improvement determined without the facts which statistics embody, the legislator must grope his way in the darkness of ignorance The legislator may, in conformity to the popular sentiment, determine that every child in the state shall be educated, and provide the means for such education; but how can he know that his will is obeyed, and the means properly applied, without that full and perfect knowledge of the subject which the statistics of education alone can furnish.²³⁶

In this report information was gathered under the following heads from the reports of school inspectors—evidently all that was thought of importance:

1. Number of districts in said township.
2. Number from which reports have been received.
3. Number of district.
4. Number of scholars between the ages of five and seventeen in each.

²³⁶House Documents, 1839, p. 193.

5. Number attending school under five and over seventeen.
6. Number attending school in each district.
7. Length of term a school has been kept by a qualified teacher in each.
8. Amount of money received from school inspectors by each.
9. Amount received for use of district library.
10. Amount received in each district.

An interesting comment on the statistical information as gathered by the superintendent is found in a report of the house committee on education in 1841:

The *returns* give us a few statistics in regard to the number of scholars in the district; the number who have at any time attended school during the year, and the time for which a school has been taught. But of the *real* character of these schools, and their success, nothing, literally nothing, is known. Whether the teachers are male or female, good or poor, well or illy paid; whether the government is tyrannical or parental; the course of study, wise or unwise; whether school houses are conveniently or inconveniently constructed, and whether parents are interested in the education of their children, and in the success of schools or not, is entirely unknown. Beyond the limits of each man's district or neighborhood, nothing is known, either to the people or the legislature. The legislature cannot act *intelligibly* upon the subject, because they have not the necessary information.²³⁷

Very likely this report influenced the legislature to amend the law by providing that the director report "Such other facts and statistics in regard to schools and the subject of education, as the superintendent of public instruction shall direct."

Superintendent Mayhew accordingly asked for such

²³⁷*House Documents*, 1841, p. 190.

information, beyond the necessary statistics, as the house committee had desired. In some districts no attention was given these questions, in a very few uncivil replies were made; but in a great number of cases the replies were entirely satisfactory. A summary of returns is to be found in the report for 1841. The call for this kind of information was soon at an end at least so far as the annual reports are evidence.

In this year certain other information was gathered at the request of the legislature with respect to the use of language other than English. As these statistics may be of interest, the following summary is offered. The reader is given the privilege of reconciling these items and the totals as best he may:

| | |
|--|--------|
| Number of scholars between 5 and 17..... | 47,066 |
| Number of children between 5 and 17 belonging to families using other languages than English | 876 |
| Number belonging to families using the German language | 470 |
| Number belonging to families using the French language | 499 |
| Number attending public schools..... | 1,806 |
| Number attending schools where books in other language than English are used..... | 86 |

One of the great difficulties met by the various superintendents of public instruction and which threw at the same time some light on the powers of the office was the failure of institutions to report, and the unreliability

of the reports from local school officers. Superintendent Gregory in 1860 stated that

The number of Colleges of this denominational class, now in the State, is five, viz: Kalamazoo, Albion, Hillsdale, Olivet and Adrian Colleges. The number of incorporated Academies and Seminaries is shown. . . .

Much difficulty has been experienced in procuring from these institutions the report required by Law.²³⁸

Even as late as 1880 Superintendent Gower wrote with respect to incorporated institutions:

The reports from these institutions, as far as received, will be found in their proper place in the accompanying documents. . . .

I wish that fuller reports of the progress and condition of these schools were to be had for publication. . . . What we should have is a brief, matter-of-fact statement of the year's work, the condition and prospects of the institution with regard to students, graduates, endowments, permanent improvements, and all other matters of general interest.

In 1865 Superintendent Hosford voiced his own and earlier complaints with respect to the unreliability of the reports coming into the office. The only data with any probability of being reliable were the whole number of children and the length of time the school was kept—all else was practically mere guess work.²³⁹

In his report for 1867 "some of the errors or blunders, made by directors" are listed:

Many made no report of the library.

One director under the head "number of schoolhouses constructed of brick," evidently inserts the number of bricks used in the building.

Districts with less than fifty children are reported as "graded".

²³⁸Report for 1860, p. 4.

²³⁹Report for 1880, pp. 31-32.

Multitudes appear to count twice all pupils attending two terms; not a few fail to report any attendance at all.

Books purchased are reported but no library.

Teachers are reported partly paid and no indebtedness.

Not more than half report the same amount of money on hand at the commencement of 1867 that was reported on hand at the close of 1866.

These remarks are made not for the purpose of censure; but with the hope that school officers will be more impressed with the importance of more care in keeping their records, and in making out their reports. And after what has been said, a caution may be due, the reader not to feel that the following statistics are so unreliable as to be valueless, for some of the items are perfectly reliable; and as regards the worst, they approximate so near to the truth in the aggregate that the general conditions of things is pretty well understood.²⁴⁰

In 1884 Superintendent Cass in suggesting desirable changes in school law asked that

More stringent measures be enacted to induce *all* school officers and teachers to a strict observance of the laws concerning their official duties. Especially as relates to making reports, employing teachers, and disbursing school funds. A forfeiture of primary school interest money or a portion of salary, for non-compliance with the requirements of the laws, would help to secure their enforcement.²⁴¹

To follow the vicissitudes of the various superintendents further in their attempts to get reliable returns from the districts and adequate information from incorporated institutions would be tedious and of no particular value. Apparently greatest reliability in returns from school districts was secured with the advent of the county commissioners in 1891.

²⁴⁰Report for 1867, pp. 124-126.

²⁴¹Report for 1884, p. xiv.

Up to 1892 statistical information had been presented by the use of tables which to the average reader gave but little information without rather detailed study. In the report for 1892 Superintendent Fitch presented comparative statistics by means of horizontal lines drawn to a unit scale. This graphic method was also employed by Superintendent Pattengill in the report for 1893. This exceedingly valuable method of presentation of material in such a manner as to be grasped readily through the eye does not appear again until the report of Superintendent Johnson in which he presents the various state expenditures, state educational progress, district tax and state aid, property valuation and school costs.

Granted that the statistical material forwarded to the state superintendent's office be full and exact and that on the basis of this information well conceived educational policies be formulated—of what great profit is it to the state at large? This raises the whole question of publicity—of informing the public with respect to the condition of their schools and educating them to better and higher standards of achievement.

This problem engaged the attention of the early superintendents and a journal was subsidized by the legislature for the purpose of spreading such information with respect to the school system as seemed best.²⁴² In 1845 Superintendent Mayhew stated that

Formerly a periodical devoted to the interests of popular education, was published in this state under the patronage of the legislature. This has been discontinued, for some reason to me

²⁴²*Joint Resolution*, March 30, 1838.

unknown. . . . at present we have no efficient means of disseminating information on the subject of common schools.²⁴³

Even the reports of the superintendent were not available to district officers. Below is the report of one of the inspectors from Hillsdale county:

Permit us in conclusion to say, that, if the legislature would cause at least one copy of the report of the superintendent to be sent to the several boards of inspectors throughout the state, we believe that much good would result therefrom, as we should then know what your views were, and what suggestions you had made in order to promote the cause of education throughout the state, and thereby be enabled to second your efforts in advancing this great object.

In 1859 the Superintendent of Public Instruction was authorized to subscribe for a copy of the *Journal of Education*, published by the Michigan State Teachers' Association, for each school district. A large amount of official matter was published in this *Journal*, together with answers to questions raised by school officers. According to Superintendent Gregory district officers manifested great interest in this feature of the *Journal* and it also relieved the office of a considerable burden of correspondence.

This information sent out through the medium of the *Journal*, however, was purely administrative in character and for the purpose of enabling the school officers to do their duty more intelligently. It was not for general public consumption. Neither is the annual report, either from point of view of the method of presenting the material or in the possibilities of its distribution. By law copies are to be furnished to all school libraries, to

²⁴³Report for 1845, p. 36.

all universities, colleges and normal schools in the United States, to members of the county board of examiners, city superintendent of schools, living ex-superintendents of public instruction and deputy superintendents of public instruction; and such other copies as the superintendent may think best not to exceed three hundred.

Granted that the statistical information be ever so exact and granted that on the basis of these statistics and the careful study of the educational situation in the state adequate educational policies are formulated, in what interesting form and by what publicity medium are they to be brought before the people of the state that they may get solidly behind the efforts of the Department of Public Instruction?

CHAPTER IV

DEVELOPMENT OF THE STATE DEPARTMENT—SUPERVISORY FUNCTIONS

WITH respect to the office of the Superintendent of Public Instruction, supervision of education shall be defined as that group of activities that deal with the actual improvement of instruction by means of:

1. The preparation and development of courses of study, the examination of text books and the preparation of approved lists from which selections are to be made, the preparation of bulletins on methods of teaching.
2. Teachers' institutes, meetings, and reading circles.
3. School visitation and inspection.

THE COURSE OF STUDY

In tracing the results of the state superintendents' thinking with respect to the course of study and curriculum it is necessary at the same time to present their conclusions and recommendations with respect to the books to be used in the schools; for it was pointed out by them in a number of instances that there could be no real course of study, no real grading of the work, if pupils were allowed to use whatsoever books they chanced to have in hand or were inveigled into buying.

And as a matter of fact though the statutes of 1837 called upon the superintendent of public instruction to recommend a course of study for the common schools yet the question of text-books was the first to arise. As early as 1838 the House was petitioned by "sundry inhabitants of the County of Calhoun" to enact a law which would bring about the examining and approving of elementary text books for use in the public schools. The House Committee on Education reported out the following joint resolution:

Resolved by the Senate and House of Representatives of the State of Michigan, that the Superintendent of Public Instruction be requested to recommend to the several school districts of the State, such elementary books to be used in the common schools as he may think best calculated for the purpose of instruction in such schools.¹

The next year the superintendent was authorized and it was made his duty to publish such a list of books in the State Journal of Education and in the State paper, and, further, he was directed to report some plan (1) to secure a regular and sufficient supply of the books recommended, and (2) to insure uniformity in the books to be used in the primary schools.²

A certain public spirited citizen of Calhoun County came uninvited to the aid of Superintendent Pierce with a plan which in some respects resembles that in use for reading circles at the present time. He suggested that the superintendent of public instruction be authorized to buy approved books and stationary equal to the probable needs of the schools; that there be a general deposi-

¹*House Journal* for 1838, p. 144.

²Act No. 17 of 1839.

tory established for these supplies; that supplies from this depot be sent to the county treasurer who would act as the county depository agent; that this official appoint a township agent; that these agents sell the supplies to the districts at a uniform price to be established by the state superintendent.

Superintendent Pierce's comment on this plan, and all that he did in the matter was to make the comment, was—" . . . could some plan of this nature be put in successful operation, it would doubtless contribute to the public advantage . . . but whether any system like that proposed can be safely attempted is for the legislature in its wisdom to determine."³

Thus the matter rested for some twenty years with the publication as required by law of a catalog of suitable books but with no legal provision for the use of such books as were approved.

Superintendent Mayhew in 1858 when recommending books for the use of teachers in primary schools and for township libraries took occasion to say:

There is a great variety of books in use in the schools of nearly every township in the state. This variety causes an unnecessary expense to parents, and is a perplexity to teachers, preventing, as it too frequently does, a proper classification of scholars; it is hence an impediment in the improvement of our schools, which should be removed as early as practicable. It is NOT *necessary* to the removal of the difficulty that the same series of books should be used throughout the state. This, indeed, would be *impracticable* if desirable. It might be well, however, for all the schools of a township to use a uniform

³Report for 1840, p. 565 (*House Documents*).

series of books; and especially is it *essential that a uniform series of books be used in every School District.*⁴

Recommendations of books for the primary schools were made in this report under twenty-one different heads. For the use of the teachers he listed the following:

David P. Paige, *Theory and Practice of Teaching.*

Ira Mayhew, *The Theories and Ends of Universal Education.*

Charles Northend, *The Teacher and the Parent.*

Edward Mansfield, *American Education, Its Principles and Elements.*

Charles De Tocqueville, *American Institutions and Their Influence.*

Charles Davis, *Logic and Utility of Mathematics.*

Superintendent Gregory in 1859 gave a thorough exposition of his philosophy of education in connection with the making of a regular course of study for the common schools. Necessarily the course of study must rest upon what one believes the aim and end of education to be. On this point he said:

The real value of education is to be measured not by the extent of ground passed over, nor solely by the amount of knowledge gathered up, but by the power and habits of thought which have been developed. Not to fill the store-rooms of memory with the finished products of other men's thought work, but to set the pupil's own mental machinery in motion—to fit him to become a producer and not merely a consumer in the great world of thought—to send him forth, at last, able to do his own thinking, and to fulfill intelligently his own proper duties as a man and a

⁴*School Laws of Michigan*, 1858, pp. 245 ff.

citizen—this should be the final aim of the school in regard to each and all of its pupils.⁵

In another passage he put the same idea in a slightly different form: The aim of education is (1) to awaken the activities of the mind, and (2) to develop mental power and character. The great hindrance to educational progress, as he saw it, was that the course of study was not based on these fundamental aims but on the false conception that the person was being properly educated whose mind was being filled with *useful* knowledge, that is to say, useful from the point of view of the adult. This was psychologically wrong:

The mind has its laws of growth and culture, as established and certain as the laws of the growth and culture of corn, and the successive studies of the course should bear a strict relation to the stages of development, just as the several steps in corn culture answers to the varying conditions of the growing plant. The true idea of education is that of a cultured growth—a trained development.⁶

Three years later he took up the matter again, saying that it was no unimportant service to discuss the value of subjects and to make suggestions for the arrangement of these studies in a proper and natural course of study. The selection of the studies and order of their sequence must be determined by the purposes for which the child is to study. These as stated were:

- 1st. The acquisition of knowledge and use of language.
- 2nd. The exercise and nurture of the several faculties and powers, to give them health, strength and skill.
- 3rd. The acquisition of such ideas and knowledges as shall enlighten the mind and afford it materials for thought.⁷

⁵Report for 1859, pp. 57-58.

⁶*Ibid.*, p. 48.

⁷Report for 1862, p. 22.

The course of study, then, should embrace the following branches—

First—Language, that is, talking, reading, orthography, composition and grammar.

Second—Thinking, or the exercise of the mental powers; beginning with simple perception and observation, and proceeding to comparison, analysis, classification, recollection, reflection, judgment, and reason.

Third—Common things—comprehending a knowledge of the forms, colors, properties, parts and uses of the familiar objects and scenes of nature and art which are the first steps of all sciences.

Fourth—Arithmetic, mental and written.

Fifth—Natural Philosophy.

Sixth—Physiology.

Seventh—Geography.

Eighth—History.

Ninth—Vocal Music.

Tenth—Use of pen and pencil in writing and drawing.

Eleventh—Morals.⁸

Just what the control of these various subjects is to be and the order in which it is to be developed must depend upon a study of the child:⁹

To sit down to a patient observation of the natural inclinations and tastes of the childish intellect; to watch carefully its modes of reaching truth; to test by repeated experiments its native power of thought and attention; to measure and weigh thoroughly its natural necessities of knowledge; and then to select wisely from the realms of science, and arrange, in a course of easy and natural successions, the branches and forms of learning, which will delight its tastes, and meet and nourish its powers—to do all this has never been thought necessary in choosing the studies for the schools, whatever a grown up teacher knew, and could ex-

⁸*Ibid.*, pp. 25-26.

⁹*Ibid.*, pp. 19 ff.

plain, that a child could be compelled to study, and forced finally to understand.

* * * * *

Many teachers do not reflect that the mind never works easily, nor up to its highest point of power, except when inspired with a strong and natural interest in its subject; and especially, that no healthful development can go on under exercises that are a drudgery and a dread.

* * * * *

But there is another grand law of teaching which is, in some sort, comprehensive of all the rest. It is the stimulation of the self-activities of the pupil—exciting the powers to action which while natural and free, shall also be strenuous and persevering.

These latter excerpts are offered to show that Superintendent Gregory's theory of education was influenced in a very marked manner by the Pestalozzian movement. He stressed child study, the doctrines of interest and of self-activity, object teaching, sense training, and the harmonious development of the mental faculties. He did not belittle the value of knowledge except it was of a nature not suited to the development of the child. In that case he had no patience with the "knowledge aim" in education. And, as was Pestalozzi, he was a thorough believer in the faculty psychology and the disciplinary value of studies.

This was the first attempt made by any superintendent to establish a course of study for the district primary schools and naturally arguments would arise against the introduction of so radical a measure. The probable objections, as the Superintendent forecasted them, would be (1) frequent changes in teachers, (2) variable length of school terms, (3) irregular attend-

ance. One or more of these, it would be objected, would prevent any steady adherence to a fixed course of instruction.

These objections, Superintendent Gregory said, were really arguments in favor of a course of study for without it frequent changes of teachers and uncertain length of school terms make it impossible for each teacher and each term to continue the work previously done; that is to say, without the course of study there were no landmarks. A definitely outlined course giving an objective form to school progress would tend greatly to encourage regularity in attendance, and would also tend to give definiteness to the length of school terms. The final and most conclusive argument for the course of study was that the best schools had them.

The proposed course is given below but the brief directions to be observed by the teachers are omitted:

FIRST YEAR—Summer term only.

STUDIES—Morals, Language (Talking and Reading), Object Lessons, Drawing, Singing, and Physical Training.

SECOND YEAR—Summer term only.

STUDIES—Morals, Language (Reading through First Reader), Object Lessons (on Forms, Colors, Numbers, Size, and familiar objects), Orthography, Drawing, Singing, Physical Training.

THIRD YEAR—Summer term only.

STUDIES—of the second year continued. Complete the Second Reader. Extend object lessons to weights and measures (use actual weights, etc.). Lessons in form to include sphere, cone, cylinder; and lessons in numbers to first half

of the multiplication table, Lessons in animals and plants.

Remark—The instruction of these first three years which constitute the primary period of education, should be mainly oral, and should have for its chief ends, to increase the children's stock of words and simple ideas, and to give them the power of continued attention. Too much anxiety should not be felt to get them forward in reading, and no attempts should be made to set them at the work of learning text-books of any science.

FOURTH YEAR

1st Term—STUDIES—Morals, Thinking, Object Lessons, Reading (3rd Reader), Orthography, Mental Arithmetic, Singing, Penmanship, Drawing.

2nd Term—STUDIES—Same as 1st term; Mental Arithmetic completed.

FIFTH YEAR

1st Term—STUDIES—Morals, Reading (Fourth Reader), Orthography (through fundamental rules and reduction), Singing, Writing, and Drawing.

2nd Term—STUDIES—Same as first term. Arithmetic through vulgar fractions.

SIXTH YEAR

1st Term—STUDIES—Reading (Fourth Reader), Orthography, Arithmetic, Natural Philosophy, Writing and Singing.

2nd Term—STUDIES—of preceding term continued; Philosophy completed.

SEVENTH YEAR

1st Term—STUDIES—Reading, Orthography, Arithmetic (completed), Physiology, Writing and Drawing.

2nd Term—STUDIES—of previous term; Arithmetic reviewed; Physiology completed.

EIGHTH YEAR—Winter Term only.

STUDIES—Applications of Arithmetic, Grammar, Geography, and Writing.

NINTH YEAR—Winter Term only.

STUDIES—Bookkeeping; Grammar; Geography; History of United States.

TENTH YEAR—Winter Term only.

STUDIES—Grammar, Geography, History, and reviews of previous studies.

Remark—It will be observed that the book studies in this course are deferred to a much later age than that at which they are usually commenced. Experience has demonstrated nothing more conclusively than the inutility, and even positive harm, of putting children too early to the study of books. As an ordinary rule, book study should not commence before nine or ten years of age.¹⁰

If all classes were present, the above course would give 20 recitations a day in the summer term and 23 in the winter term. More would be necessary in direct ratio to lack of uniformity in text books.

The legislature in 1861 had enacted that it should be the duty of the board in each district to "prescribe the text books to be used in the school; but text books, once adopted, shall not be changed within two years, except by the consent of the majority of the regular voters at some regular meeting."¹¹ In the report for 1862 districts were earnestly urged immediately to comply with the law, for the "economy of the teacher's time, and the enhanced progress of the pupils effected by a uniformity of books, will amply compensate any district for the slight expense attending the introduction of such uniformity."

Superintendent Hosford in 1868 was in agreement with the main contentions for uniformity of text books.

¹⁰*Ibid*, pp. 41-44.

¹¹Act No. 176 of 1861, Sec. 57.

He, too, said that every successful school must be graded and have a fixed plan and definite time for recitations. This could not be done with a great diversity of text books. County superintendents were laboring to bring about this desirable result and here and there meeting with some success.

In 1877 a course of study worked out by the Michigan Superintendents' Association, according to the report for that year, was used in many of the primary schools.¹²

While this course of study was not a product of Superintendent Tarbell's educational thinking yet he endorsed it *in toto* which amounted to the same thing. Like all courses of study of that period, including that of Superintendent Gregory's, it was a mere outline in which the work for the year or grade was pretty definitely fixed and was uniform for all children and for all communities. It contained nothing in the way of suggestion with respect to various methods of handling the content; had no reference to the desirability of connecting the work of the school with the life which was going on about the school; and showed little regard for the conscious application of the material which the child learned.

In his discussion of text books Superintendent Tarbell said that no course of study could be formed or attempt at grading be made while lack of uniformity prevailed.

I hope to see the day when nine-tenths of the schools of Michigan will be working upon a course of study substantially uniform,

¹²Report for 1877, p. xi. See Appendix "I".

adapted to the characteristics and development of the growing mind, practicable for the schoolroom and amply qualifying for the duties of adult life.¹³

Sixteen years before this report was written, the legislature, it will be recalled, made it mandatory upon the district board to provide for a uniform list of text books to be used in the schools. This had not been complied with but in rare instances, as it appears the boards were afraid to use their authority. It was a highly unpopular act on the part of two or three neighbors to compel a friend to discard a perfectly good book which had been brought into the Territory by some eastern ancestor and which by virtue of careful usage and an oil cloth cover was absolutely intact. A book was a book. To help out in this delicate situation Superintendent Tarbell asked the legislature to require the district board under penalty to send to the Superintendent a list of text books selected for the district. Thus the school patrons would see that the board was performing an unavoidable task and the vials of wrath could be emptied upon the legislature. The legislature took no action.

He also recommended the passage of a law allowing taxpayers to determine at the annual meeting whether school books be furnished to the pupils at the expense of the district. Free text books would as a matter of fact solve the "uniformity of text book" problem. The district boards were already authorized to furnish text books for indigent children—this would merely be an

¹³*Ibid.*, p. xx.

extension of the principle.¹⁴ The legislature took no action on this recommendation.

By way of digression, an interesting statement is made in this report. The same complaint is voiced that one frequently hears at the present time, though the present day critic is apt to think that the children of the 70's and their education were far more ideal than the children of today. Superintendent Tarbell writes:

. our young people are more hasty and impatient than formerly, less plodding and thorough-going in disposition and with memoritic instruction, little drill, and few tests of faithfulness or comprehension, no wonder the cry goes up that the instruction given in the schools is not thorough and practical.¹⁵

Superintendent Gower in 1878 attacked the problem of the course of study for the small graded school. As he expressed it there was a general feeling that if a school did not have the regulation twelve grades, even though in but a small village, there might just as well be no school at all. He contended that the small graded schools could not maintain a good twelve year course and advised very urgently that these schools content themselves with ten grades and make their aim the preparation of pupils for the "common school course" of the State Normal School, thus bearing the same relation to it that the first class twelve grade school bore to the University. A large number of the principals of village schools were in agreement with his point of view. Whether this plan was accepted or not depended upon the action of the local school authorities. No special legislation was asked.

¹⁴*Ibid.*, p. xxii.

¹⁵*Ibid.*, p. xx.

In the general revision of the school law in 1881 it was provided that

The district board shall specify the studies to be pursued in the schools of the district, and prescribe the text-books to be used, which shall be uniform in each subject that may be taught, but text-books once adopted under the provisions of this act shall not be changed within five years, except by the consent of a majority of the qualified voters of the district present at an annual meeting.¹⁶

The law of 1881 when compared with that of 1861 introduced a new power on the part of the board, that is, authority to specify the subjects to be taught in the schools, and it also changed the period of adoption from two to five years.

Superintendent Cochran's report for the year 1881 presented a course of study for the primary schools which he hoped would be of service to them in the management of their schools. As a general rule, he advised the teachers, it was better to adjust the school to the course of study rather than the course of study to the school. In but very few instances should the outline as presented be altered in any way. What the "instances" are he does not state. Promotion from one section to another should be made only upon careful examination. These examinations, if possible, should be uniform throughout the county.

The work of the first section was planned to cover two years, that of the second section three years, and that of the third section two years. The course of study required five reading books, one spelling book, two arithmetics, two geographies, one grammar, one United

¹⁶Act No. 164 of 1881.

States history. The school room was to be furnished with dictionary, globe, outline maps, blackboard, crayons, and pointers.

A daily program of recitations was offered and definite provision was made for the study of the various subjects. "The study programme is of as much importance as the recitations. Teach children to study."¹⁷

Superintendent Gass in 1883 stated that not one-third of the rural schools were using the adopted list of books although there was a law on the statute books which was designed to force such a practice. To his mind the untiring efforts of book agents had not helped the matter any:

Here is one of the plans pursued: The agent 'works' the district quietly, after the style of a 'still hunt'; in this way he avoids the open competition of other houses, and usually finds an open field and an easy victory. He urges the importance of uniformity, and shows how it can be secured by adopting a full list of books which he has. Upon this list are books that are comparatively worthless and out of date, but a few good ones, well recommended, win the adoption of others that should never find their way into the schools. The *worthless* books, also, aid in securing the approval of the list; since they can be afforded at a very low figure the average price of each book in the set is brought below the figure at which such books are usually sold. This is presented by the agent as another point in favor of his books, and with most boards it is an effective argument. In time, however, the imposition is discovered, and the next agent that comes into the district finds but little difficulty in displacing these books, regardless of the law, and securing the adoption of his own.¹⁸

¹⁷Report for 1881, pp. 179-183. See Appendix "J".

¹⁸Report for 1883, p. xii.

Taking up the question of the course of study for the district schools, Superintendent Gass pointed out some of the undesirable features and results of the ungraded schools:

1. The early withdrawal of pupils from school.
2. Frequent change of teachers.
3. Large number of classes.
4. One sided development since children are allowed to follow their own inclinations.
5. Multiplicity of text books.
6. The practice of turning pupils back at the beginning of each term.
7. The lack of record of the work of the school and the attainment of pupils in former terms.

He urged the general adoption of a graded course of study and offered some changes in the course formulated by his predecessor. The work was classified in four grades on the basis of the "natural relations of the studies to each other, and with reference to the rational development of the faculties of the child." Further:

The term *grade* does not indicate any particular age or any fixed length of time during which the pupil must have attended school, but refers to a certain degree of advancement he has made in the studies prescribed. In assigning work to those entering school, it is advised that the teacher adjust the pupil to the prescribed course and not the course to the pupil¹⁹

Under the heading "NOTES" only one page of the report is given to helpful suggestions to teachers for covering the entire course of study.

In 1887 at the annual meeting of the county school

¹⁹*Ibid.*, 208 ff. See Appendix "K" for course of study.

examiners Secretary Schurtz of Eaton County advocated that the course of study be published in a manual with proper explanations and instructions and issued from the state superintendent's office. Further, this course of study should be made the basis for institute work and questions should be put in the theory and art of teaching to test the knowledge of the candidates in this important matter. Mr. Schurtz sagely remarked that if one wanted a teacher to study anything the best way was to introduce questions on it in the examination.

A resolution was adopted at this meeting providing for a committee to prepare a state manual and course of study that should be uniform for all the counties of the state. This was to be submitted to the state superintendent of public instruction for criticism, revision, approval, and publication.

The committee stated in its report that

This manual has been prepared with one great object in view,—to enable the children of the district schools to follow from term to term and from year to year a plain, simple, *progressive* line of study that shall give them in the end a good common school education. Its constant aim throughout is:

FIRST.—To introduce nothing not already taught in these schools.

SECOND.—To make the classification as simple as possible, easy for the teacher to understand and follow, and to lighten his labors.

THIRD.—To regulate the steps from grade to grade so that pupils shall be interested and kept in school, encouraged and credited for work done, and that the usual waste of time and aimless work resulting from frequent change of teachers may be reduced to a minimum.

FOURTH.—To put all the school work of the county in one

common plan, so that methods used in teaching the various branches, amount of work accomplished, the system of reports, records, etc., may be the same.

FIFTH.—To make the work of supervision stronger and more effective, and to enlist the interest and sympathy of parents and school officers by making them better acquainted with what the schools are endeavoring to accomplish for their children.²⁰

Nothing could better indicate that this course of study is based on the conception that the work of the school is to develop knowledge than the following:

In the back part of this manual is a form for giving a tabular view, *by terms*, of the whole course of study, as previously outlined in detail. It is placed there as a *Model* to be patterned after by each individual secretary who may wish to fix the exact point or stage to which work is to be carried each term.²¹

This manual of 1890 fills thirty-three pages of the report. It is therefore intended to be much more suggestive than any of the courses of study previously issued. A bibliography of books helpful in teaching the various subjects is appended as well as a list of books suitable for supplementary reading.

Superintendent Tarbell in 1877 had advocated free text books²² and in 1883 Superintendent Gass called the attention of the legislature to the desirability of favorable action in this matter. To his mind it was just as reasonable for the district to furnish the text books free as to furnish blackboard erasers, crayon, and pointers; and, beside, the question of uniformity of text books, at least in any one school, would be automatically solved.²³

²⁰*State Manual and Course of Study for the District Schools of Michigan*, 1890, p. 7.

²¹*Ibid.*, 9. See Appendix "L" for course of study.

²²Report for 1877, p. xxii.

²³Report for 1883, p. xv.

Six years later the legislature gave districts permission to vote on the question of free text books. When so authorized the board was directed to purchase books in each of the following subjects: Orthography, spelling, writing, reading, geography, arithmetic, grammar (including language lessons), national and state history, civil government, and physiology and hygiene, (this to be approved by the state board of education).²⁴ This action in addition to giving permission to raise a tax for the purchase of books indirectly limited the subjects to be taught in the primary schools.

In 1894 Superintendent Pattengill sent a questionnaire to the directors of school districts for the purpose of determining just what had been done under the free text book law. The number of ungraded school districts at that time was 6,555 and in round numbers 350 of them had voted favorably on the question of free text books. The replies from sixty-four directors were tabulated. Whether that was all the replies that came in from the 350, more or less, directors or an element of selection entered in the tabulation is not known. At any rate fifty-one replied that it was cheaper for the district to furnish the books than for the parents to buy them (one enthusiast replied that it was 100% cheaper). To the query, "Does the present system give general satisfaction?" the objections raised were that it was too expensive; was opposed by those not sending children to school; children don't take good care of the books. These objections were raised, however, by but three directors. Satisfactory results fell under the heads of

²⁴Act No. 147 of 1889.

—gives the poor a better chance to school their children; helps the teacher by reducing the number of classes through uniformity of texts; saves money for the parents; non-resident land helps pay for books; teacher can begin work the first day for books are all in the schoolroom; pupils can sit alone.²⁵

In this year another edition of the course of study adopted in 1890 was published. No changes were made in the course but "Suggestive lessons in Physiology" was added which increased the size of the manual by fourteen pages.

The manual of 1890 was followed in 1897 by an edition issued by Superintendent Hammond though the work was begun by Superintendent Pattengill, his predecessor. In preparing this edition, containing one hundred sixty-two pages, the Superintendent thought it best to depart somewhat from the previous editions since the interest taken in rural schools for the past few years had developed new ideas with respect to their scope and management. Also the legislature of 1897 had made it the duty of the superintendent of public instruction to prepare a course of study for the district schools comprising the branches required for a third grade certificate. When this course should be successfully completed the pupil was entitled to admission as a freshman to the Agricultural College, hence it was to be called the "Agricultural College Course."²⁶

Two statements made by Superintendent Hammond in connection with this course of study are worthy of

²⁵Report for 1894, pp. 13 ff.

²⁶Act No. 181 of 1897.

note. First, he insists that teachers should develop in their pupils proper habits of study and, second, that the grades should be adjusted to the pupils rather than the pupil to the grade.

The new subjects added to this course of study are Nature Study and Bookkeeping. Suggestions with respect to method of treating material are fuller than in previous editions, especially in history and civil government. In the appendix is an outline for nature study, desirable information with respect to morals and manners, directions for calisthenic exercises, and memory gems. The "Suggestive lessons in Physiology" and helpful book lists of former editions are retained. The books are graded and classified.

In order to insure the use of the course of study or at least cause teachers to become familiar with it, questions were incorporated in the teachers' examinations in theory and art, history, and civil government, which would require a knowledge of the manual to answer.

In 1897 the legislature passed an act known as the Graham-Forsyth law, providing for a state text book commission to consist of the State Board of Education together with three county school commissioners to be appointed by the governor. The books so selected were to be used throughout the state except in such districts as furnished or should furnish free text books, and such districts as should vote not to come under the provisions of the act.²⁷

This law and the methods used in securing its enactment drew the wrath of Superintendent Hammond. His

²⁷Act No. 198 of 1897.

general opinion may be determined by the following passage:

There has been much said in recent times concerning the influence of legislative hoodlers and bribers. I am not prepared to say that any man who has appeared as a lobbyist on the text book question is either a hoodler or a briber, but I can say, however, that the great army of earnest, conscientious men and women who are the school teachers and officers of the state, has been imposed upon by men who have held state offices and thereby gained some influence, come to legislative halls with hypocrisy and deceit, declaring with sanctimonious cant, to use their own words, 'We pay our own railroad and hotel bills'; also that they were working without pay in 'protecting the interests of the boys and girls of Michigan'.²⁸

During the summer of 1898 the Superintendent's office was busy working up material which was published as *Text Book Legislation—Facts and Figures*. On the basis of the facts there presented the superintendent attacked the text book law of 1897 and sponsored what was known as the Loomis bill. The matter ended with the repeal of the Graham-Forsyth law and the defeat of the Loomis bill by "disappointed text book lobbyists."

Thus the contending forces have left us just where we were before—with an optional free text book law by districts (law of 1889).

It is my belief that the only law which should receive the commendation and support of those interested in education is such a one as shall amend and simplify the optional free text book law now on our statute books; and I am convinced that any bill under any guise whatever inviting the creation of a Text Book Board or Commission, should be looked upon with distrust as absolutely unsafe, and liable to unscrupulous manipulations.²⁹

²⁸Report for 1897, p. 13.

²⁹Report for 1898, p. 3.

In the report for 1900 Superintendent Hammond gave a general exposition of Manual Training in the schools together with a definitely outlined course for sewing and cooking and suggestions for a shop course. The topic is discussed under the following heads:

Manual Training.

The Advanced Kindergarten.

Some facts and figures.

Manual training in character building.

Courses of study and cost of manual training schools.

Manual training in Michigan.

Manual training schools visited in other states.

What becomes of the products of manual training schools?

The opinion of educators.³⁰

Superintendent Fall in discussing the course of study in the report for 1901 states that it is the duty of the district board to specify the studies to be pursued in the schools and that, as is often the case, if a teacher finds that this has not been done, she is justified in following the course given in the State Manual and Course of Study. This aims to be suggestive and helpful to the younger teachers by giving them the general scope of the work to be done and some specific instruction as to the methods to be pursued:

No teacher should follow any course of study slavishly, nor seek to make every child fit into the same pattern, nor follow precisely the same plan. So far as is consistent with the time and circumstances the teacher should seek to develop the individuality of the child. The course of study is to be fitted to the child, not the child to the course of study.³¹

Writing in 1903, Superintendent Fall said that during

³⁰Report for 1900, pp. 16-55.

³¹Report for 1901, pp. 35-36.

the last two sessions of the legislature bills were introduced providing for state uniformity, for state publication of text books, and for publication of text books in the penal institutions. All failed to receive favorable consideration and he hoped such bills would never be revived. He was in agreement with the former superintendent's statement of 1898, quoted above, for the following reasons:

First.—That experience has shown state uniformity of text books unwise;

Second.—That state publication of text books opens the door to trickery, dishonesty, and poor books; and

Third.—Because we have a good workable text book law at present upon our statute books, I most earnestly recommend that no further text book legislation be at present attempted in Michigan.³²

Superintendent Wright in 1907 under the heading "Needed Legislation" asked for a law requiring all school districts to furnish free text books.³³ Two years later he said, "We believe that every county should have a uniform list of books and these books should be purchased at a reasonable price. With county uniformity there would be less need for parents to purchase new books every time they moved."³⁴

No text book legislation was undertaken, however, until the session of 1913. Under "An act to regulate the sale of text books" definite rules were laid down with which publishers were obliged to comply if they wished to do business in the State of Michigan. These regulations in part were: To file a bond with the state super-

³²Report for 1903, pp. 68-69.

³³Report for 1907, p. 8.

³⁴Report for 1909-10, p. 7.

intendent of public instruction, to maintain uniformly throughout the state the lowest price quoted anywhere in the United States, to supply books equal in quality to the sample filed with the State Department. It was also provided that district treasurers must purchase the books of children moving out of the district.³⁵ This latter provision gave to some extent the results asked for in 1907 by Superintendent Wright.

In 1915 the law of 1889 was amended to allow school boards to provide free text books, when so authorized, to all grades instead of limiting this option to the grades below the high school as formerly. And there for the time being text book legislation rests with five year adoptions, district uniformity, selections by local boards from an approved list, free texts to indigent children and free texts to all children when authorized at the annual school meeting, and the required purchase of privately owned books when the owners move from the district.

In 1901 the legislature authorized the establishment and maintenance of rural high schools in townships where no graded schools had been established. In the report for 1907 Superintendent Wright outlined a course of study for such schools, compiled a list of reference books, and made some suggestions with regard to the organization and equipment of this type of school. Suggestions were concerned with agriculture, manual training, domestic science, and domestic art.³⁶

In 1907 provision was made for establishing county

³⁵Act No. 315 of 1913.

³⁶Report for 1907, pp. 23 ff.

schools of agriculture. A two years' course was prepared by the Superintendent to take up the work beyond the eighth grade. The course was differentiated to give boys considerable training in business accounts, farm mechanics, agriculture; and for girls training in domestic science and art, gardening, and business accounts.

The state course of study issued by Superintendent Wright in 1910 presents some points of difference when compared with that of 1897, as given above. In the 1910 course geography, drawing, and nature study are not found in the first grade group; physiology nor geography in the second grade; physiology in the third grade; state history and government in the sixth grade; nor civil government in the seventh grade. In the Preface to the 1910 course of study manual are the statements:

The changes made have particularly to do with language, geography and drawing. There is a distinct trend in rural education toward the industrial. The time will come when domestic science, manual training, and scientific agriculture will be as much a part of the training in a country school as arithmetic is now.

The changes made in this edition are, we believe, along the line of the natural evolution in education. More and more we must come to the truth that books alone can never educate. The tendency in teaching is away from complete dependence on the text.

In 1914 Superintendent Keeler went on record as favoring the reorganization of the high school on the 6-6 plan.³⁷ He gave in this report suggested courses of

³⁷The first attempt in Michigan to organize a school system on this plan, so far as the writer has been able to ascertain, was made by Dean A. S. Whitney in 1898 while superintendent of schools at Saginaw, East Side.

study under four heads: Literary, Agricultural, Household Arts, and Commercial. Following these is an extended outline of subject matter for a course in household arts suited to high schools organized on the 6-6 plan.

The main arguments offered for the 6-6 plan were:

1. Best adapted to meet the physical and mental changes which occur about the time children have finished the sixth grade.
2. Permits departmental teaching.
3. More opportunity to come in contact with men teachers.
4. Easier to make satisfactory promotions.
5. Children stay in school longer.
6. Shorten period for graduation if pupil is especially gifted.³⁸

Superintendent Keeler issued a course of study in 1916 in which he said that

Teachers should become very familiar with the course as outlined and with the methods suggested. The work in primary reading and spelling has been revised. An attempt has been made to correlate the school work with the home life and with the problems of the business world. . . . Reference has been made throughout this manual to the County Normal Manual and Course of Study. Teachers are urged to familiarize themselves with that bulletin. It contains helpful lesson plans and methods of work.

The most important factor in school work is the teacher. With this exception, teachers should realize that the success of their work depends on no other factor too so great an extent as on the course of study."³⁹

³⁸Report for 1914-15, p. 40.

³⁹*Manual and Course of Study*, 1916, Preface.

The latest course of study syllabus was prepared in 1922 by Superintendent Johnson from which the following is quoted:

The law provides that this course shall be pursued in all district schools of the state except city school districts. A great many changes have been made in the preparation of this course because of a desire to make it as valuable as possible to the teacher. This syllabus refers to a number of bulletins published by the Department. It is expected that the teacher will familiarize herself not only with the outline but with the bulletins themselves.⁴⁰

The course of study for the elementary school has been revised three times since 1897 by the Department of Public Instruction—in 1910, 1916 and in 1922. The course of study for the high school remained officially static from 1905 to 1923. The course was outlined by a committee appointed by the Superintendent of Public Instruction under resolution of the Michigan State Teachers' Association.⁴¹ The various subjects were referred to special committees who worked out the details of each.

The committee in its acknowledgments said:

It is only proper for the Commission also to state that State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Dr. Delos Fall, has taken great interest in the work of the Commission, which was created through his appointment, has attended many of its meetings, and has done everything in his power to bring the work to a successful issue.⁴²

⁴⁰*Course of Study Syllabus, 1922, Preface.* The course of study for 1916 and that for 1922 are given in Appendix "N".

⁴¹This committee consisted of

Webster Cook, Chairman
W. J. McKone, Secretary
L. H. Jones
A. S. Whitney

A. J. Volland
E. E. Ferguson
C. L. Bemis

⁴²Report for 1905, p. 68. See Appendix "O" for course of study.

In 1923 a course of study was prepared "to meet the needs of the smaller high schools of which there are approximately three hundred fifty in the state of Michigan."

The committee⁴³ was influenced in its work by the recommendations of the Commission of the National Education Association on the Reorganization of Secondary Education to provide an outline of work for a six-year high school and at the same time provide adequately for meeting the needs of the students preparing for college, the needs of those students whose formal education will end with the high school, and the needs of the group whose education will end with the ninth or tenth year.

In commenting on the problem the committee states that

The small high school is not a small edition of the large high school. It is a distinct institution with its own problems and its own purposes. It ought not to attempt the work of the large high school nor ought it to feel that it must measure its success by the accomplishments of the large high school. This is especially true in the matter of courses of study. The small high school cannot hope to offer such a variety of courses as can the larger school. This must mean a restricting of its curriculum to well established lines and a consequent narrowing of the field of electives. . . . This does not mean, however, that its work cannot be done just as thoroughly nor that those who finish its course are more poorly equipped.

The Manual comprises 132 pages and gives in some

⁴³The committee consisted of
C. L. Goodrich, Chairman
J. B. Edmonson
H. Z. Wilber

detail the aim, content, and method of teaching each of the subjects given in the course of study.⁴⁴

Beginning with Superintendent Gregory who issued the first course of study for the primary schools with optional adoption by local authorities, centralization becomes complete by legislative action in 1913 which made it the duty of the superintendent of public instruction to prepare a course of study for the district schools "which *shall* be pursued in all district schools with the exception of city school districts."⁴⁵

In a pamphlet issued by the Commissioner of Schools of Washtenaw County is the following statement:

The school law says that the Superintendent of Public Instruction shall prepare a course of study for the district schools. For this reason a teacher has no voice in the subjects to be studied. It is expected that she will follow out the spirit of the State Manual and the outline below that is based on it.

On its face the course of study as now developed is prescribed for all pupils alike regardless of their needs and abilities and for the entire state regardless of varying community needs. The elaboration of the work in each subject by means of special bulletins with their schedules of references and supplementary aids has the same centralizing effect but is of undoubted benefit to the teacher with only a fair amount of knowledge and still less professional training. There is no doubt that able and conscientious teachers "will follow out the spirit of the State Manual" and make necessary adjustments within the schools. Nevertheless with adequate

⁴⁴Bulletin Number 12, 1923, *Manual and Course of Study*. See Appendix "P" for course of study.

⁴⁵Act No. 323 of 1913.

professional supervision within the county and better trained teachers the uniform course of study for the county rather than for the state, but in all matters subject to the approval of the state superintendent, seems more in harmony with progressive educational thought. However, until such time arrives as shall give the state adequate supervision and teaching, the uniform state course of study is far better than the majority of the counties or districts could devise.

That flexibility in the uniform course is not undesirable is featured by the later state superintendents. The earlier statements to the effect that the child should be fitted to the course of study, the statement in 1901 that the individuality of the child should be respected by the course of study, the statement that school work should be related to home life and general environment, show definite correlation of the proposed function of the Michigan course of study with developing educational thought. This has made necessary a modification of the earlier formal subjects in the direction of aim and variety of content as well as enriching the fields of possible experience by the introduction of new subject matter.

With power to fix a uniform course of study, to determine what text books may be selected by means of the approved list, to determine through the examinations what shall be the character of the academic and professional training of the teachers, to determine the general trend of institute work, puts no small amount of power and of responsibility in the hands of the superintendent of public instruction—a power over the possible develop-

ment of the boys and girls of Michigan that calls for the very best thought of the most competent men that can be secured for the office.

The following outline gives the more important ideas and accomplishments of the superintendents of public instruction in the matter of text books and the course of study, also the more important legislative action concerned:

| | | |
|---------|------|--|
| Pierce | 1839 | Directed to furnish a list of desirable text books for the common schools. |
| Mayhew | 1858 | Thought it desirable to have township uniformity of text books but absolutely necessary to have district uniformity. |
| Gregory | 1859 | Outlined a course of study for the district schools. |
| | 1861 | Legislature made it the duty of the district board to prescribe text books to be used. |
| Hosford | 1868 | Insisted that schools must be graded and that there must be uniform text books. |
| Tarbell | 1877 | Michigan County Superintendents formulated a course of study. |
| | | Favored a uniform state course of study. |
| | | Recommended that the legislature give districts the right to vote on the question of supplying free text books. |
| | | Wanted no deviation from the course of study either for schools or for pupils. |
| Gower | 1878 | Recommended that the weaker schools content themselves with a course of study covering ten grades and preparatory for the normal school. In an M. S. T. A. meeting he advocates manual training. |

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|---------|------|---|
| Cochran | 1881 | Legislature directed the district board to specify the subjects to be taught in the school. Formulated a course of study. Advised that the school be adjusted to the course of study. |
| Gass | 1883 | Urged the adoption by each school of a course of study. |
| | 1889 | County school examiners prepared a uniform course of study for the state. Legislature granted permission to districts to vote on the question of supplying free text books. |
| Hammond | 1897 | Stated that grades were made for the pupil not the pupil for the grade; course of study should recognize the individual pupil. Knowledge of the course of study necessary in order successfully to pass teachers' examination. |
| | 1900 | Issued a department bulletin on manual training. |
| Fall | 1901 | Advised that the course of study be fitted to the child. |
| Wright | 1907 | Asked for a law requiring districts to furnish free text books. Recommended county uniformity of text books. Issued a course of study for rural high schools and for county schools of agriculture. |
| Keeler | 1913 | Legislature passed text book law now in force, also made use of state course of study mandatory. |
| | 1914 | Advocated the 6-6 plan of organization. Issued a course of study and bulletins on methods. |

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|---------|------|---|
| Johnson | 1922 | Issued a revised state course of study for elementary schools and various bulletins on methods of teaching. |
| | 1923 | Issued a manual and course of study for small high schools. |

Bulletins issued by the State Department of Public Instruction since 1902 on the course of study and methods of teaching:

- | | | |
|--------|------|--|
| Fall | 1902 | Manual training in the rural schools. |
| | 1903 | Manual of a course of study. |
| | 1903 | Thrift teaching in the public schools. |
| Kelly | 1905 | Suggestions and examples for manual training. |
| | 1905 | Course of Study for the high schools of Michigan. |
| | 1906 | Course of study and manual of methods for the district schools of Michigan. |
| Wright | 1907 | Papers and discussions by county normal training class teachers in Michigan. |
| | 1907 | Suggestive outlines in Geography for the schools of Michigan. |
| | 1907 | Elementary laboratory study in crops for the schools of Michigan. |
| | 1907 | Elementary laboratory study in soils for the schools of Michigan. |
| | 1907 | Elementary laboratory study in horticulture for the schools of Michigan. |
| | 1908 | Course of study and manual of methods for the district schools of Michigan. |
| | 1909 | Industrial and vocational training in the public schools of Michigan. |
| | 1909 | Drawing in the rural schools of Michigan. |
| | 1909 | Language teaching in the schools of Michigan. |

- 1910 Suggestions for teaching history in the rural schools of Michigan.
- 1910 Arithmetic teaching in the schools of Michigan.
- 1910 Course of study and manual of methods for the districts schools of Michigan.
- 1910 Language outlines for the schools of Michigan.
- 1911 Sense training in the schools of Michigan.
- 1911 The teaching of kindness to animals in the schools of Michigan.
- 1911 Physical training in the schools of Michigan.
- 1912 Suggestions for physical training in the public schools of Michigan.
- 1912 Agriculture in the rural schools.
- 1912 Course of study and manual of methods for the district schools of Michigan.
- 1912 Suggestions for teaching history in the rural schools of Michigan.
- 1912 Third grade arithmetic in the schools of Michigan.
- 1912 Fourth grade arithmetic in the schools of Michigan.
- 1912 Fifth grade arithmetic in the schools of Michigan.
- 1912 Sixth grade arithmetic in the schools of Michigan.
- 1912 Language outlines for the schools of Michigan.
- 1913 Seat work in the rural schools of Michigan.
- 1913 List of books and prices for Michigan schools.
- 1914 Supplementary list of books and prices.
- 1914 Games for the schools of Michigan.
- 1914 Course of study and manual of methods for the district schools of Michigan.

Keeler

- | | | |
|---------|------|---|
| | 1914 | Course of study for the small high schools of Michigan. |
| | 1914 | Physical training for the city schools of Michigan. |
| | 1915 | Art education for elementary schools. |
| | 1916 | Manual and course of study for elementary schools. |
| | 1917 | The teaching of reading. |
| | 1918 | The teaching of reading. |
| | 1918 | Manual and course of study for elementary schools. |
| | 1919 | Physical training for the graded schools of Michigan. |
| Johnson | 1919 | Language lessons—materials and methods. |
| | 1920 | List of books and prices for Michigan schools. |
| | 1920 | The value of formal work in physical education. |
| | 1920 | Physical education for primary children. |
| | 1922 | Course of study syllabus for elementary schools. |
| | 1922 | Arithmetic in the grades. |
| | 1922 | Training for citizenship. |
| | 1922 | Reading in the grades. |
| | 1922 | Syllabus of Bible study for junior and senior high schools. |
| | 1923 | Graded dances and rhythmical plays. |
| | 1923 | Nature study projects and seasonal pageants. |

TEACHERS' INSTITUTES AND READING CIRCLES

Henry Barnard is given the credit of organizing the first teachers' institute though it was not given such title

at that time. In 1839 he gathered a number of teachers together for the purpose of showing

..... the practicability of making some provision for the better qualification of common school teachers, by giving them the opportunity to revise and extend their knowledge of the studies usually pursued in the district schools and the best methods of school management, instruction, and government, by means of recitations and lectures conducted by experienced and well-trained teachers and educators.⁴⁶

In 1842 J. S. Denman, a New York county school superintendent, conducted a two weeks class which he called a teachers' institute. The class was formed for the purpose of reviewing and extending the topics taught in the common schools. And in 1845 Horace Mann started the movement in Massachusetts with a ten day institute at Pittsfield.

Ira Mayhew who had had experience in a county superintendency in New York became superintendent of public instruction in 1845. In his report for that year he wrote forcefully on the need of knowledge and of skill on the part of the teacher. Normal schools, he said, were designed for just that purpose and were indispensable in any well conceived system of public education. But in the absence of such professional schools the teachers' institutes provided an excellent substitute. And what is more they were able to reach all the teachers in the state while a normal school could be attended by comparatively few.

The aim and program of the institute advocated by Superintendent Mayhew, as given below, did not differ

⁴⁶Monroe, *Cyclopedia of Education, Institutes*.

from the formulation of purpose which had been stated by Barnard:

When institutes have been established, the teachers of a county usually spend about two weeks in session, fall and spring, with a competent principal and experienced board of instruction, employed by a committee provided for that purpose. The several branches of study ordinarily pursued in our common school, are reviewed; the different methods of instruction and modes of government are discussed; and plans are laid for concert of action. Lectures have generally been delivered before these institutes by professional gentlemen and others, who from their devotion to the great work of popular education might appropriately be denominated common school missionaries.

Would it not be well to encourage their establishment in this state by legislative provision? I entertain the opinion that if the state has \$25,000 to appropriate annually to the promotion of common school education, it would be productive of greater good to apply one or two thousand dollars or even five thousand dollars, to assist in defraying the necessary expense of maintaining teachers' institutes in the different counties, and the residue to the support of schools, than to apply the whole to the payment of unqualified teachers, or even to those of ordinary attainments.⁴⁷

In the month of October, 1846, Superintendent Mayhew held a teachers' institute in the village of Jackson: about thirty teachers were in attendance.⁴⁸ It was clear to the Superintendent that the public was not ready for such gatherings and that a deeper and more wide-spread interest would have to be awakened before any general program could be organized. He thought, however, that, even under the prevailing conditions, five or six institutes held at strategic points in the state "would

⁴⁷Included in Report for 1848, p. 36.

⁴⁸*Ibid.*, p. 43.

be well sustained, and numerous attended, and prove highly beneficial in their influence."

The great number of unqualified teachers and the general lack of appreciation of teacher training on the part of the public led Superintendent Mayhew to place himself in opposition to the establishment of a normal school as previously noted. Rather, he would provide a short course of normal instruction through teachers' institutes or normal classes held in different parts of the state to accommodate the whole state. By this means not only would teachers be trained but the public would be educated up to the value of such training and would then be prepared for establishing and maintaining teacher training schools.

It was recommended to the legislature that the expense of providing a board of instruction for the institute be met by drawing on the income from the primary school fund.

In 1847 a bill was introduced in the House for the purpose of establishing teachers' institutes. On March first it met with the following action:

The amendment striking out all after the enacting clause to the bill in relation to teachers' institutes for the instruction of teachers of the common schools, was concurred in, and the further consideration of the enacting clause was indefinitely postponed.⁴⁹

Superintendent Shearman in 1851, after suggesting "all of the most important" matters to the legislature, added that it is believed that teachers' institutes "are the means of doing much good, and of eliciting much interest in behalf of the cause of education." At the

⁴⁹*House Journal*, 1847, p. 217.

Adrian institute, which he conducted, the following course of instruction was given:

1. The elements of the English language, with reference to the best method of commencing with pupils in learning to read and spell.
2. The first principles of arithmetic and best methods of conducting a class through the science.
3. The higher principles of the English language including grammar, composition and elocution.
4. The natural sciences, including natural philosophy, chemistry and botany.
5. Penmanship, book-keeping and drawing.
6. Geography, outline maps, map drawing and the use of globes.
7. History, and the government of the United States.
8. Vocal music.⁵⁰

At this institute a resolution was offered asking the Superintendent to request the legislature to make some appropriation for the support of institute work. He agreed with the general proposition and stated that beyond question with some legislative aid these meetings would advance greatly the interests of education.

The dedication exercises of the State Normal School at Ypsilanti were followed by a four weeks institute organized by Superintendent Shearman. He called the teachers' institute "a temporary normal school." In his circular of announcement he stated that he expected the teachers of the primary schools to attend.

The course of instruction at this institute was not as pretentious as the one quoted above. During the first three weeks instruction was given in arithmetic, natural

⁵⁰Report for 1851, p. 95.

science, and the English language. In the fourth week anatomy and physiology displaced arithmetic. Instruction was given by the lecture method and with the usual purpose of reviewing the common school branches and presenting the methods of teaching "which have received the approval of the best and most enlightened educators."

In 1855 the legislature came to the aid of the teachers' institutes by authorizing the superintendent of public instruction to appoint a time and place for holding such a meeting for not less than ten days at the request of not less than twenty-five teachers. For defraying the expenses the state agreed to pay from its general fund not to exceed \$200 for any one institute and not to exceed \$1,800 for all institutes held during the year.⁵¹

In the following year Superintendent Mayhew wrote:

I think I may safely say it constitutes the most popular and inspiring feature of our excellent school system. It does more to bring to counties in which they are held, a knowledge of the capabilities and usefulness of the state normal school, than could be effected by any other instrumentality. . . . Its power consists in the improvement of the teachers now actually in charge of our schools, and who will continue in charge of them, whether qualified or not. . . .⁵²

Superintendent Gregory in 1860 asked the legislature to modify the institute law so as to allow a five day session instead of ten. This was done in 1861. The law was amended to read "five" working days and the amount to be paid by the state reduced to \$100.⁵³

His reasons for asking the change were: That more

⁵¹Act No. 70 of 1855.

⁵²Report for 1855 and '56, p. 15.

⁵³Act No. 239 of 1861.

teachers would attend a shorter session; that under the maximum of \$1,800 state aid more institutes could be supported; and that the tax upon the hospitality of the places where the institutes were held would be less—the citizens usually gave the visiting teachers free board and room.

Another suggestion with respect to securing better results from the institutes was made in 1863. It was the first note of criticism which had appeared but applied not to the institute as such but to conditions relative to it. It appeared that township and district officers were not co-operating to the extent which they should and that teachers, therefore, were not attending in as large numbers as could be wished. It was recommended that teachers be allowed to dismiss their schools and be required by local school officers to attend the institute held in their neighborhood.⁵⁴

Superintendent Hosford in 1865 brought up the same point with respect to school officers. They did not want the school to stop at all in some instances, and in others they wanted the time made up as they esteemed it *lost*. The teachers were unwilling to make up this time and, consequently, the institutes were neglected.

The office of county superintendent of schools was created in 1867. The report of that year stated that these officers had already begun to hold county institutes. Classes were continued in these institutes for from seven to ten weeks and gave opportunity for reviewing previous to the teachers' examinations the

⁵⁴Report for 1863, p. 33.

branches required to be taught in the common schools.⁵⁵

In 1873⁵⁶ and again in 1876 Superintendent Briggs renewed the struggle against the school authorities, and suggested that it be made imperative upon school boards in localities within reasonable distance of the places where institutes were held to require all their teachers to attend during the entire session. He added that in some states there were laws requiring all public schools to close during the session of an institute and that the wages of the teachers were paid while they were in attendance.

The legislature of 1877, mainly through the efforts of Superintendent Tarbell, enacted a new institute law following in many respects the Ohio statutes.⁵⁷ Provision was made for collecting one dollar from each man and fifty cents from each woman who took out a teacher's license. These fees were paid into the county treasurer's office and drawn upon for the support of the county institute. Those who were not certificated during the year were obliged to pay a fifty cent registration fee when attending the institute. This, too, was deposited with the county treasurer. If the expenses of the institute should not be met by the county institute fund, the state treasury might be drawn upon not to exceed \$60 for a five day session. The Superintendent of Public Instruction was authorized to hold a yearly institute for the state at large at a cost not to exceed \$400—the whole amount to be spent under this act was not to exceed \$1,800.

⁵⁵Report for 1867, p. 142.

⁵⁶Report for 1873, p. 10.

⁵⁷Act No. 53 of 1877.

In sending out the call for the first state institute Superintendent Tarbell made it clear that one of the main functions of this institute was "to bring together for mutual improvement those who are to do institute work in the state during the summer and fall." The workers in the fifty or more institutes to be held were to present the same ideas, subject-matter, and methods throughout the state and thus make for uniformity of practice.⁵⁸ This developed a powerful centralizing agency for supervising the Michigan common school system by the superintendent's office provided, of course, the teachers in any number gave heed to institute instruction.

Superintendent Gower in summarizing the work of the institutes for the year 1878 said in part:

The best teachers are found attending the institute and are emphatic in its approval.

The average institute conductor deals too largely in common place generalities and philosophical dissertations, and too little in sensible instruction as to teaching the common branches in the common schools.

The most popular and successful institute instructors give teachers the benefit of frequent model class exercises.⁵⁹

Superintendent Gower in 1879 found the attendance at the county institutes was not as good as it should have been, though improving. The lack of any county educational officer (the office of county superintendent of schools had been abolished) and the fact that school examiners and school officers showed so little interest in the value of professional training as related to skill

⁵⁸Report for 1878, p. xxxvi.

⁵⁹*Ibid.*, p. xxxvii.

and success in teaching militated against teachers attending these temporary normal schools in any considerable numbers. That the teachers in greatest need of training did not and that the better teachers did avail themselves of institute privileges was shown by the fact that twenty-eight per cent of institute attendance was made up of teachers holding first grade certificates; the number holding such certificates was only eight per cent of the total number issued. While on the other hand thirty-eight per cent of the attendance was made up of holders of third grade certificates who comprised fifty per cent of the teachers.⁶⁰

Perhaps there might be a rather high correlation between the absence of those young and untrained teachers and the "common place generalities and philosophical dissertations" mentioned above. The main reasons, however, were that in so many instances, when teaching, the time lost had to be made up; they secured teaching positions at the same compensation whether they attended the institute or not; and unless their expenses were met by the hospitality of the townspeople where the institute was held they were obliged to meet them out of their own meagre earnings.

In this year, 1879, appeared the first formal outline of institute instruction.⁶¹ As there stated the objects of teachers' institutes were:

1. To draw into the service of the common schools of the State its best educational men;
2. Thereby to train up good common school teachers by

⁶⁰Report for 1879, p. xl.

⁶¹*Ibid*, pp. 75 ff.

- a. Giving them a knowledge of the principles underlying their professions;
- b. Giving them the best method of applying these principles;
- c. Promoting acquaintance and professional spirit among teachers;
- d. Showing, by practical examples, how vastly good teachers differ from poor ones;
- e. Concerning all those elements that go to make a state great.

The different topics presented were:

1. The department of public instruction. (1)⁶²
2. Organization of district schools. (1)
3. School government and discipline. (2)
4. Arithmetic. (8)
5. Geography. (3)
6. Physiology and hygiene. (2)
7. United States history. (2)
8. Civil Government. (2)
9. Penmanship. (2)
10. Elementary drawing. (2)
11. Vocal music. (4)
12. Morals and manners. (2)
13. The art of questioning. (1)
14. Relation of teachers and parent. (1)
15. Elementary sounds. (6)
16. Spelling. (4)
17. Reading—primary (3) and advanced. (4)
18. Language lessons. (2)
19. Technical grammar. (3)
20. School law. (2)

This program was planned for a ten day session and was so arranged that each teacher in attendance was given instruction in all the topics offered. Model lessons were given in primary reading, spelling, and advanced reading—one in each.

⁶²The figures in parentheses indicate the number of periods given to each subject.

The reports for 1863, 1865, 1867, 1873, 1876 were critical of the attitude shown by local school authorities towards the attendance of teachers at institutes. One can see official sentiment slowly forming toward compulsion and paid attendance, but no action came until 1883 when the legislature amended the basic institute law of 1877 to the effect that a certificate of attendance be given the teachers who were present and such teachers were not to forfeit their wages if engaged in teaching at the time.⁶³

In spite of this favorable legislation Superintendent Nelson showed in 1885 that less than one-third of the teachers reported for instruction at the institutes. Seventy per cent of those holding first grade certificates were enrolled, while but forty-five per cent of second grade and forty-six per cent of third grade certifications were present:

I think it is my duty to call the attention of the Examining Boards to this matter. Why not oftener require teachers to show some substantial proof of the information they have obtained by attendance upon the Institutes, and if such proof is satisfactory, give them due credit. Why not occasionally ask for their note-books, or require other evidence that they have made a wise use of their opportunity.⁶⁴

Evidently active sentiment against the institutes was developing in the state. Superintendent Nelson thought that perhaps too much had been expected of them; that at their best they could be only *suggestive* and not *exhaustive* in their treatment of the topics offered. Yet because they brought inexperienced teachers in contact

⁶³Act No. 112 of 1883.

⁶⁴Report for 1885, p. xiii.

with educators of high rank in this calling, and into helpful acquaintance with each other the institutes had not wholly failed and needed no other vindication of their right to be continued.

The topic—How can the county institute be made more profitable?—was discussed at the meeting of the Michigan State Teachers' Association of 1886 with the following net conclusion:⁶⁵

1. The work should not be developed by rigid outlines of institute work but should be flexible and suited to local needs.

2. There should be a small permanent corps of well-known, highly trained and experienced institute workers, about one-third of the present number employed. These instructors should not be faddists and should have the breadth and depth of knowledge and the practical common sense to adapt their work to the needs of the teachers in attendance.

3. This picked corps of workers should serve to keep the superintendent of public instruction in touch with the social and educational needs of the state.

4. More purpose and unity in the work offered and fewer topics treated.

5. Teachers to be in some way held responsible for the instruction received.

In 1886 with the assistance of Professor Payne of the University of Michigan and Principal Putnam of Ypsilanti, Superintendent Nelson published a new "Manual of Institute Work."

Comparison of this outline with that of 1879 shows the following topics to have been dropped:

1. Penmanship.
2. Elementary drawing.
3. Vocal music.

⁶⁵Report for 1886, pp. 272-278, *passim*.

4. 'The art of questioning.
5. Relation of teacher and parent.

In the suggestions to institute conductors and instructors the general purposes of the institute were stated:

1. The institute is to be regarded as a normal school with a very short course of study. Its purpose is to do, in part, the work which the state normal school has not the opportunity to do.

2. The purposes of the institute may be stated as follows: To revive the pupil's knowledge of subjects; to give some degree of professional knowledge; to create and foster both a scholarly, and a professional spirit.

3. A few of the more important parts of arithmetic, grammar, geography, history, etc., should be selected and these should be presented so clearly as to leave a permanent impression.

4. Under professional instruction there should be included the best methods of organizing, governing, and instructing, and some discussion of the principles. Under the last head it is recommended that the following principles be discussed: 1. The function of the public school in a republic; the elements of good citizenship; for which of these the school should be held chiefly responsible; how the patriotic spirit may be fostered. 2. What it is to teach; what it is to think. 3. Show that studies may serve for use, for mental discipline, and for mental satisfaction. 4. Show how training differs from memorizing, and, how books are to be used to promote thinking.⁶⁶

In 1885 a committee from the Michigan State Teachers' Association was appointed to report to the state institute at Lansing on the question of establishing a state reading circle for teachers.⁶⁷ A plan was formulated, accepted and put into operation. The work of the circle received recognition from the state board of

⁶⁶Report for 1886, pp. 160 ff.

⁶⁷Report for 1885, pp. xviii-xix.

education through basing, in part, the questions for county teachers' examinations on the books recommended for the year's reading. At a meeting of the county school examiners at Lansing the following recommendation was adopted:

That for work done in the State Teachers' Reading Circle by an applicant for a certificate, and accepted by the Central Committee, the examiners add at least one per cent to the general average for each book read or part of the work so done.

The work of the reading circle was incorporated into that of the teachers' institutes as supplementary to it. Its aim was, (1) to assist teachers in pursuing a systematic course of self instruction, (2) to recommend a graduated course of study, (3) to secure good books at low prices, (4) to secure proper credit on the books of the county examiners.

In 1891 Superintendent Fitch took a comprehensive view of the problem of making the institute more worth while. He found two classes of remedies for its defects—one in legislative action and the other within the power of the state department of education. With respect to the first remedy: Provision must be made by the legislature to increase the institute fund, to make attendance compulsory on the part of every teacher in the county on pain of forfeiture of certificate if there were not a reasonable excuse. With respect to the second remedy: Care in selection of instructors and conductors; insistence upon model classroom work and a proper adjustment of academic and professional work to the needs of the teachers; to provide for a continuous course of institute work so that there may be an *insti-*

tute system for the whole state; and, finally, to establish an organic connection between the institute, the reading circle, and the teachers' examinations.⁶⁸

The last remedy offered he felt was of great importance and was returned to in the report for 1892:

Besides grading the institute work it has been thought advisable to bring it into more organic connection with other parts of our educational system. It probably has been remarked by many of our thoughtful teachers and superintendents that our institutes, our reading circles, and our teachers' examinations have been, in their administration as well as in their practical operation, treated as distinct and independent units, while evolving a graded course of institute work, it also proposed to unify these heretofore independent elements of our education system into one organic whole. To accomplish this (1) a course of reading will be incorporated in the institute course, and (2) questions for teachers' examinations will be based in part on the work done in the institute, and on the course of reading required in connection therewith. This process of unification once begun might continue until there is some conformity between the work done in the different grades of the institute, the requirements for the certificates of different grades, and the course of study in our State Normal School. The perfecting of such a plan may be far in the future.⁶⁹

In an address before the State Teachers Association on this subject Superintendent Fitch said that the institute system, at one time, of great worth, had now outgrown its usefulness; that its most serious and fundamental defect was lack of unity, aim, and system and these defects were *absolutely inherent in the system*:

Each institute begins nowhere in particular and leads to no definite stopping point. No conductor takes up the work where

⁶⁸Report for 1891, pp. xviii-xx.

⁶⁹Report for 1892, p. 36.

another has left it and leaves some definite starting point for his successor. So long as each conductor is practically an autocrat and so long as the present system of appointment prevails there is no effective remedy.

My efforts to establish a definite course of study for institutes, with a regular system of examinations, promotions and production, is the most radical reform that could be applied while the present system is preserved, and yet, I am satisfied, it is too conservative to prove ultimately effective. This reform, so manifestly necessary as to meet the approval of almost every one, can never be made effective without a permanent corps of institute conductors.⁷⁰

Professor Hinsdale, however, in a discussion of this subject in a M. S. T. A. meeting pointed out the dangers of putting the institutes into the hands of a small professional staff. Such teachers were just as likely to fall into routine and mechanism as were others. If engaged solely in this work, they were divorced from the class room and its stimulation to growth. This objection would be largely overcome if each member were employed in teaching or supervision for a part of his time.

Professor Putnam emphasized the importance of power on the part of the instructor to create enthusiasm in the minds of young teachers and send them home with an earnest purpose, a burning zeal for self improvement and for improvement in methods of teaching and management.

Institutes for just the purpose suggested by Professor Putnam were later initiated by Superintendent Pattengill. He said:

. the state superintendent planned for several short

⁷⁰*Ibid*, p. 237.

conventions known as Inspiration Institutes, in which the central thought should be to elevate the ideals, encourage the faithful, spur the indolent, revive the dead, inspire all.⁷¹

These institutes of two or three days duration were intended particularly to meet the needs of the more populous districts where teachers were already well prepared in academic work and details of method but needed a revival of spirit and a new grasp of principles.

The main stimuli found in one of the first programs were as follows:

"Interrogation Points"—Supt. H. R. Pattengill.

"Education as Growth"—Dr. R. G. Boone.

"Inspire or Expire"—Supt. H. R. Pattengill.

"Professional Training"—Dr. R. G. Boone.

"Artist or artisan, which?"—Col. Parker.

"Field Excursion in Geography"—Col. Parker.

In addition some instruction at this institute was given in United States History, nature study, and school government.

Superintendent Fall in 1902 attacked the institute problem in a vigorous fashion. He said that Michigan had had all kinds of institutes in its history—the lecture institute, the method institute, and the review institute. Each had had merit in its time but had fallen short of the ideal. Such an institute should be characterized by three qualities: It should be inspirational; it should be professional; and it should be academic. These qualities were to be exemplified in three kinds of institutes—a distinctively inspirational one of three days; a distinctively professional one of five or eight days; and the long

⁷¹Report for 1894, p. 2.

term institute which should be distinctly academic but include the inspirational and professional qualities.⁷²

That there was great need of the professional work given in the institutes was shown by the Superintendent's statement that of the sixteen thousand teachers employed in the state less than five per cent had had any special training whatsoever to fit them for their work. The need of the institute, then, was evident; the problem was to make the work efficient and attractive.

In 1903 Superintendent Fall was convinced that the inspirational or short term institute of one to three days duration was slightly better than nothing at all; furthermore, this type of institute comprised over fifty per cent of the whole number held:

"In my judgment," he said, "it is unwise to use the institute fund year after year for short term institutes. The average young person who expects to teach possesses sufficient enthusiasm, and it is not "inspiration" he needs, but

PROFESSIONAL INFORMATION.

It is almost a crime to permit persons who have not had any special training for the work of teaching to enter the school-room and to attempt to instruct children. It is absolutely impossible for us to secure proper results so long as this practice is permitted."⁷³

County commissioners of schools were informed that it was their duty to advise with the superintendent of public instruction with respect to the institute work done in the county, and that they must give to this matter their most careful attention. For their aid an eighty-

⁷²Report for 1902, pp. 85-86.

⁷³Report for 1903, p. 45.

five page State Teachers' Institute Outline was sent out annually during Superintendent Fall's term of office.

A new departure in institute work was inaugurated during his administration known as the "Traveling Institute." For this type of work a lecturer was appointed to go into a county and spend a week with the commissioner of schools visiting the schools and school patrons. In the evenings all met at the school house for lectures on school matters. By this means the Superintendent hoped to bring about a proper appreciation of the requirements and possibilities of the schools.

Superintendent Fall's successor, Patrick H. Kelley, also had definite views with respect to the work of teachers' institutes. To his mind the work as given was not sufficiently systematic, intensive, and specialized. During his administration the long term institute work was merged whenever possible with the summer sessions of state normal schools and with county normal training classes. Special lecturers for institute purposes were paid from the county institute fund. County commissioners were expected to attend the sessions for as great a length of time as possible and assist in making the work a success.

Where neither of the above plans was possible the time-honored five, eight, or thirteen day session with the institute outline to make the work systematic throughout the state was employed.

The three day inspiration institute was retained with the privilege of substituting the traveling institute when funds and conditions in the county warranted it.

The course of study covered

1. Some or all of the common branches.
2. Psychology and pedagogy.
3. Primary methods.
4. Methods in spelling, writing, and language.
5. Manual training.
6. Music.
7. Drawing.
8. Nature study.⁷⁴

During the year 1908 the number of the different types of institutes held was as follows: Four six-weeks institutes in connection with the state normal schools, fourteen of two weeks or more in connection with summer county normal training classes, four county institutes of eight days or more, sixteen of one week, thirty-eight inspiration institutes, seven traveling institutes, and a general state institute in connection with the State Teachers' Association. The last mentioned institute, Superintendent Kelley said, was the first of its kind ever called though permission to call such an institute had been given as early as 1877.

Statistics for 1917, the latest available, show that slightly more than two-thirds of the counties held institutes thirty days in length in connection with the summer session of the state normal schools. The great majority of the other institutes held were two days in length. The total expenditures were \$16,445.39. Of this amount the state treasury was drawn upon for \$2,587.03; the maximum amount which might be drawn from this source was \$3,000.00. The main expenses were met from the county institute fund, which was

⁷⁴Report for 1906, pp. 30 ff.

raised by the means noted in the institute law of 1877 with the further provision that in case the fee had not been paid in connection with procuring the license that a like amount should be collected when the contract for employment was signed.⁷⁵

By preparing a list of speakers on certain topics from which selection must be made for summer normals and for county institutes, and by approving the selections made by county commissioners for the district institute the superintendent of public instruction can influence educational thinking throughout the state to a great extent. And as a member of the board which selects the books for reading circle work he has a still further opportunity to shape thought, though but little of the possible power of this agency to build up a professional spirit throughout the state is being utilized. Michigan superintendents of public instruction might well study the Indiana system and begin a campaign of education for the benefit of the public and the legislature.

The reports show clearly the problems with which the superintendents have struggled with respect to the training of teachers in service. They found in the first place that the public and the school officers in too many instances were decidedly ignorant of the value of professional training and a thorough knowledge of the subject matter to be taught. As a matter of fact one *superintendent of public instruction*, who was an enthusiast for the teaching of geology in the common schools, announced a text book of such excellent character that the subject might be taught by teachers who knew nothing

⁷⁵Report for 1917-18, pp. 248-252.

about geology. With a public holding no brief for adequate academic and professional training such qualities were not given recognition by increased compensation.

In the second place they found three sources of weakness in the teaching body:

1. Weak in knowledge of the subjects to be taught as well as in general knowledge.
2. Weak in professional preparation.
3. Weak in enthusiasm for the work.

These conditions were closely connected with a public that thought the schools were good enough as they were.

In the third place they found inefficiency among the institute instructors. Considerable local prestige accompanied the appointment to the institute staff and many sought and obtained the position who were not fitted for that particular type of work even though they might have good reputations as teachers. Complaint was frequently made that the instructors coming from graded systems were not sufficiently acquainted with the conditions prevailing in district schools to give the work pertinency. At best the instructor was in the district too short a time really to learn the local needs.

In the fourth place they found the work was unsystematic; each instructor even with institute outlines went his own way and pace and often along the line of least resistance. Instruction was for the most part by means of lectures with but little demonstration through class room exercises of the principles or facts involved. Usually too much was attempted for the amount of time given to the program. There was no definite prepara-

tion for anything in particular on the part of the teachers attending the institute.

In the fifth place there was no "follow up" program on the part of school authorities. There was nothing to stimulate the lazy to attempt to put into practice the new ideas to which they had been exposed at the institute; no provision to set right the amateur who in all good faith and confidence, not having thoroughly understood the principles or practices developed by the institute instructor, might be doing quite the wrong thing; no provision for giving criticism and helpful suggestions when needed. Enthusiasm and inspiration without skilled guidance and checking up of results soon wane.

And lastly there was a serious defect inherent in the superintendent's office. Elected for a period of two years, and many served no longer than that, they were unacquainted with the problems and with the institute workers. They were, perhaps, just getting a grasp on the situation when their term of office expired and another amateur took charge of the state's educational system.

The provision that the applicant for a certificate after 1925 must have had some professional training will be taken care of by the various teacher training agencies which the state department has been successful in establishing. The problem of continued training in service is now paramount and will challenge the best constructive thought of coming state superintendents.

Mayhew 1846 First teachers' institute.

1848 Favored teachers' institutes as a means of training teachers.

| | | |
|------------|------|---|
| | 1855 | State teachers' institute law. |
| Briggs | 1876 | Recommended compulsory attendance at institutes. |
| Gower | 1879 | First outline of institute instruction. |
| Gass | 1885 | Reading circle established. |
| Fitch | 1891 | Outlined a plan for institute work. |
| Pattengill | 1894 | "Inspiration institutes." |
| Fall | 1901 | Outlines for institute work sent out annually. Inaugurated the "Traveling institute." |
| Kelley | 1905 | Merged the long term institute with summer schools. |

THE ORGANIZATION OF UNITS FOR LOCAL SCHOOL SUPERVISION

Bryce in his *Modern Democracies* points out that individualistic self-reliance and self-help, and an aversion to official control or supervision are salient American characteristics. He finds a spirit of localism which manifests itself in a desire to retain as much business as possible under local control and to entrust as little as possible to central authority. He finds a faith in liberty and equality and in the conception that the mere possession of liberty and equality in and of itself makes men cherish and guard them. And, further, this faith brings about a state of mind which minimizes differences between one citizen and another so that almost any public function may be performed by one honest man as well as any other honest man. This further implies that the term of office shall be short and the pleasure and honor of holding office shall be enjoyed by as many citizens as possible. Rapid rotation in office, too, gives little oppor-

tunity for any citizen to gain much power, for power is a corrupting thing and endangers liberty and equality.

Superintendent Tarbell in 1877 makes it very clear that Michigan's democratic theory and practice bear out the statements made by Bryce. He says, "There is, in Michigan, a feeling prevailing to a greater degree than in most other states, that abhors centralization and resents outside interference."⁷⁶ This statement, certainly, was as true in the earlier history of school supervision in the state as at the time of Superintendent Tarbell.

The constitution of 1835 made no provision for the control of school instruction in any way except by the local school officers. Their activities were carried on under the general laws of the state which through their representatives they had enacted and which by the same means they could repeal. No central power could legally directly control what went on within the schoolroom and it was only with great difficulty that local officers could be prevailed upon to give any information with respect to school conditions to the state department of education upon which the superintendent might base an appeal for constructive legislation. The school house was the district castle.

The story of the growth of indirect supervision of the work of the schoolroom by the superintendent of public instruction through the course of study which until recently was not compulsory, questions for teachers' examinations, teachers' institutes, and teachers' reading circles, has been told. Such supervision lacking the per-

⁷⁶Report for 1877, p. xxiv.

sonal element tends to become mechanical. Fixed courses of study and uniform examinations either of teachers or pupils do not and cannot take into consideration the strengths and weaknesses and needs of the local situation. However, with present methods of local direction they are indispensable.

That local appraisal and direction of the teacher's work was from the founding of the school system its weakest point has been recognized by the state superintendents of public instruction from first to last. Their thoughts about and their attempts to change the agencies and methods of checking up the work of the teacher in order to secure better results are the "objectives" of this chapter.

The term "inspection" is used advisedly with respect to the data to be presented. "Supervision" is inspection and more. Inspection and examination of pupils in one way or another are the bases for diagnosing the strengths and weaknesses of the teacher. To have real value inspection must be based upon scientifically determined standards or, wanting that, upon generally accepted criteria which have been found to produce satisfactory results. In other words, the inspector must have a knowledge of the principles of teaching and have had actual experience as a teacher upon which to build his standards of judgment. Supervision includes systematic inspection but goes further through making diagnosis and formulating constructive criticism.

Inspection or supervision as it was called in the early days was cursory and for the purpose of passing judgment upon the teacher, and such judgment was based

for the most part on the quality of discipline maintained and sometimes upon an examination of the pupils in subject-matter—most frequently in reading and spelling. Good teaching was not dependent upon professional training for there was none, but was a matter of trial and success which put a premium upon experience, natural gifts, and a determination to succeed. These qualities were personal; they had in no wise been formulated into standards. What to do in the schoolroom was a matter of opinion and the opinion of the inspector or a parent was as good as that of any teacher, doubtless it was generally considered to be better if the inspector or parent were particularly successful each in his own line of work. Not until a later time does frequent and systematic inspection come to be a basis for constructive work with the teacher.

The character of these visitations by school officers may be seen from the following examples. The first is part of the report of the School Inspectors of Boston for the year 1738 and reads as follows:

“That the number of scholars instructed in the public school is as follows, viz:

| | |
|---------------------------------------|-----|
| In the Smith Grammar School about... | 120 |
| In the North Grammar School about... | 60 |
| In the North Writing School about... | 280 |
| In the Writing School in Queen St.... | 73 |
| In the South Writing School about... | 62 |

That we heard the performances of the Latin scholars at each grammar school and inspected the performances of the scholars in the other schools, both in writing and arithmetic, and heard the younger scholars read. And that in general they performed to the great satisfaction of the visitors; and we have grounds

to hope that the masters in the said several schools do faithfully discharge the trust reposed in them."

A section of the Massachusetts law of 1826:

" each town in this commonwealth, shall, at the annual March or April meeting, choose a School Committee, consisting of not less than five persons, who shall have the general charge and superintendence of all the public schools in said town; and it shall be the duty of said committee, to visit the schools in said town, which are kept through the year, at least once a quarter, for the purpose of making a careful examination of the same, and to see that the scholars are properly supplied with books; also to inquire into the regulation and discipline of school and the proficiency of the scholars therein."

TOWNSHIP SCHOOL INSPECTORS

Michigan in 1837 provided for a board of township inspectors whose duty among others was to examine candidates for teaching "in regard to moral character, learning and ability to teach school." This in effect was indirect supervision. In addition the law made it

" the duty of the inspectors to visit all such schools in this township, at least twice in each year, as shall be organized according to law, to enquire into their condition, examine the scholars, and give such advice to both teachers and scholars as they shall deem proper."⁷⁷

The above section provided for inspection and in the last clause was planted the seed which under suitable conditions might germinate into expert supervision in the sense of improvement of instruction through personal effort on the part of the legal authority working with the teacher.

⁷⁷Act No. LXIII, Art. IV, Sec. 29 of 1837.

The law of 1837 made no provision with respect to the educational qualifications of the town inspectors. Many of them could neither read nor write, nevertheless they might be successful and estimable citizens and hence worthy of office. Many of them when it came to the matter of doing their duty by inspecting the school were conscious of their inability to pass judgment on the teacher and his work. This led to numerous suggestions to the superintendent, so Mr. Sawyer wrote in 1841, that there be "an amendment to the law as would enumerate specifically the qualifications of teachers."

What was wanted, evidently, was something objective like a modern score card. What they got was a statement from Superintendent Sawyer to the effect that *ability* to teach "undoubtedly means the *power to teach*. It is believed that, if the term *ability* be defined in this way, no amendment can be necessary."⁷⁸

The superintendent of public instruction looked upon the office of the school inspector as one of great importance and therefore sterling qualities should be demanded of this school officer. Superintendent Sawyer felt that since the inspectors were

"The judges of what constitute qualifications for teaching, their own moral character should be stainless, their own learning adequate to the task imposed, their own ability undoubted. They must possess, too, great firmness of purpose—a moral courage that will shrink from the performance of no duty, whether in the exact line of their own predilections or not, which is demanded by the educational interests of the town."⁷⁹

⁷⁸Report for 1841, p. 18.

⁷⁹*Ibid*, p. 16.

Several of the superintendents make specific suggestions to the inspectors with respect to their duties. Those of Superintendent Gregory are selected since they are most complete. The important points to which every inspector should give close attention are:⁸⁰

1. Character and condition of the school room.
2. Discipline.
3. Methods of teaching.
4. Conduct and language of the pupils as a criterion of moral conditions in the school.
5. Condition and use of equipment.
6. The condition and correctness of the school register.
7. Securing the presence and co-operation of the District Board.

Now let us turn to the other side of the picture—actual qualifications, performance of duties, and results.

The office of school inspector was political and in too many cases the candidate was selected on the ground of his ability to capture votes rather than on his ability to determine the qualifications upon which a certificate should be issued or to judge the efficiency of the teacher in the schoolroom. Certificating teachers and inspecting schools was not his real job but something on the side which many of them felt incompetent to do with any credit to themselves. This is shown by the suggestions which were made to Superintendent Sawyer and which he so lucidly answered.

Then, too, though many townships had competent men who in some instances were elected and in others not, yet many townships had no competent men whatever. It was simply a matter of electing what they had,

⁸⁰Report for 1863, pp. 35 ff. See Appendix "Q" for complete text.

and such officials could scarcely perform the duties in the manner indicated by Superintendent Gregory as quoted above.

As early as 1841 complaint was made by the Superintendent that

As a general thing, inspectors do not visit the schools; or if they do only once or twice a year, and then seldom examine the scholars or make any suggestions to the teacher. In some districts they have not been near the school during the past year.⁸¹

Four years later Superintendent Mayhew quoted the law with respect to the appointing of a school visitor to inspect schools and prefaced it with the following statement:

Hitherto, in the majority of cases, so far as this department has the means of knowing, no visitor has been appointed. Moreover the majority of the schools in the state have not been visited officially by the school inspectors, once a year, according to the reports received at this office.

In 1863 there were 693 townships that reported. Of these the schools in 160 townships had had no inspection at all, in 156 part of the schools had been visited, and in 137, or 54 per cent of the whole, all the schools had been inspected at least once during this year.

The Michigan State Teachers' Association was thoroughly interested in the matter of school inspection and left nothing undone to secure a more adequate method of performing the work. On this point its committee in 1856 made a report from which the following is taken:

It is a matter open to the slightest observation that while our present system fully recognizes the necessity of a thorough offi-

⁸¹Report for 1841, p. 15.

cial superintendency of the public schools, practically it almost entirely fails to provide it. In many cases the schools are not visited at all. From the beginning of the term to the close, no visitor either official or private crosses the threshold of the schoolroom, and the visits of the inspectors when made are nearly useless. Most of the inspectors have not that practical knowledge of teaching which can alone make their visits of the highest value; and when qualified, still their visits are so hurried as barely to permit them to see, without enabling them to benefit the schools. Except in a very few very well marked instances in which the good done amply prove the utility of the labor, it may well be doubted whether the schools of the state are any whit better for any inspection they have received. Nor is the examination of teachers, under the present system, of any more value.⁸²

Again in 1857 the committee reported in part:

The system as now existing, is objectionable for the following reasons:

1. Because but very few Inspectors qualified for their duties can be found. A somewhat rare combination of learning, experience and zeal is required for the proper oversight of schools. Many of our Inspectors could not themselves teach a district school.

2. Because they do not generally perform their duties as the law supposes. They might, very easily, visit and inspect the schools, but they very seldom do. To the positive knowledge of your Committee, the union school of a city second in size but to one in the state, has not been visited by an Inspector in his official capacity for the last three years.

3. Because examination of teachers, as usually conducted, is a mere farce, a libel upon the law, and utterly useless to all parties concerned.⁸³

Throughout the whole period of 1837-1867 it is

⁸²*Mich. Jour. of Educ.* III, 284.

⁸³*Ibid.* IV, 366.

evident that there was dissatisfaction with the method of township inspection on the part of both superintendents of public instruction and the body of organized teachers. As early as 1841 a remedy was proposed by Superintendent Sawyer in his recommendation that Michigan adopt the county school superintendency organization of the State of New York:

Within the past year, the State of New York has adopted a plan of superintendence for her thousands of common schools which commends itself to our attentive consideration. It is the appointment for each county of a deputy superintendent, whose duties of supervision shall be coextensive with the schools of his circuit. To his care are committed the educational interests of the county. He examines all the teachers, visits all the schools, collects all the statistics, sees that the laws are efficiently executed, ascertains their defects and suggests improvements, and otherwise promotes sound education.⁸⁴

In 1845 Superintendent Mayhew outlined a change in the administration of the duty of supervision by which provision should be made for a county board of school inspectors to consist of inspectors from each township together with a township board of school directors. The school inspector was to be chairman:

The proposed arrangement would bring together the school inspectors of a county twice every year. . . . The inspectors would also have an opportunity of exchanging views with reference to the best method of improving the schools under their immediate supervision and of engaging in concert of action. . . . With the proposed improvement in the school law, through the medium of county conventions of inspectors and town conventions of directors, the influence of the superintendent might be

⁸⁴Report for 1841, p. 20.

directly and sensibly felt by every parent and child in the remotest school districts of the seagirt peninsula.⁸⁵

Ten years later he proposed another scheme which retained the township school inspector and provided for one school commissioner in each senatorial district. His duties among others should be to inspect schools and certificate teachers. Though this recommendation was under the head of "Necessary Legislation" the legislature did not so consider it.⁸⁶

The Michigan State Teachers' Association at this time came out flatfootedly for county supervision. In a memorial to the State legislature their committee reported that the creation of the office of the county superintendent would secure efficient men for the work of supervision. For such an office

. instead of requiring only a few hours snatched from the hurry of the incumbent's ordinary business, would demand his whole time and of course must receive a salary proportionate to services to be rendered. This together with the real dignity and importance of the office will, it may certainly be expected command the services of gentlemen of distinguished learning and talent. Their steady prosecution of their official duties for month after month will give them facility in those duties, and an experience which cannot but prove of great value to the schools under their care. To this must be added, a steady contemplation of the great interests of education will almost necessarily awaken that earnest enthusiasm upon the subject, which will make even small talents commanding and successful.

Nor would the influence of the Superintendent end here. Upon the teachers of the county he acts with great effect. His inspection of teachers would be sound and discriminating. The elevation of the standards of qualifications would compel candidates

⁸⁵Report for 1845, pp. 27 ff.

⁸⁶Report for 1855, p. 26.

for the teacher's chair to seek a more thorough preparatory training and this result would be insured by the visit of the Superintendent to schools. Constant practice would enable him to detect, almost at a glance, any defects in the government, in modes of teaching, while his experience would help to suggest the proper changes in such a way as to correct the evil without injuring the teacher either in his or in the public regard.

In Pennsylvania the office has been established and the following extracts from a letter from Hon. Thomas H. Burrows, formerly State Superintendent of Schools will show in what estimation the office is held there. "The office works well with us—*admirably*, whenever the right man holds it,—*well*, when incompetently."

The following year, 1857, the Association's committee stated that

The County Superintendent system has the following advantages:

1. The Superintendent holding his office for a term of years, there would be continuity of order and system in the schools.
2. A person unqualified to teach, could not so easily, failing to procure a certificate in one township, immediately resort to an adjoining one where the inspectors were of more easy virtue, and fasten himself a literal vampire upon the body politic.
3. Teachers knowing that they were responsible to an intelligent man, would labor to qualify themselves for their office.
4. There would be a channel of communication between different townships, and the different districts of the same township, so that the superior plans and practices observable in one quarter might be pointed out as worthy of imitation in others.
5. Teachers worthy of the name, laboring to qualify themselves for their high calling, would thus be known, and consequently, advanced to positions better fitted for their services.
6. A general interest in the cause of education would result,

diffusing life and vigor into the now palsied members of our school organization.

7. The State of New York formerly had a system upon which our own was modeled. She changed this for the system of County Superintendents. The change worked exceedingly well, but through the influence of demagogues and croakers, it was repealed, and town superintendents substituted in its stead. This, after years of trial, has again been superseded by the Representative County System, inasmuch as some of the counties are so large and populous as to demand more than one superintendent.

8. The County Superintendent might hear and adjust all matters of difference between districts, as well as other difficulties constantly arising in schools as now conducted.

9. It would in the end be less expensive than the present system. In other words, the plea of additional expense to be incurred by the change, is a "penny wise and pound foolish doctrine."⁸⁷

Superintendent Gregory was convinced that the method of supervision of the schools of the state should be changed, that the schools were not yielding the product in education that they should, that thousands of dollars were being wasted in poor teaching and poor school supervision. It was very clear in his mind that some county or district superintendency should be adopted and if so the following points must be carefully considered:

1st. *The selection of well qualified officers.* This is vitally essential to the success of the system, and will be best secured by vesting the power of choice in some competent board who may carefully deliberate and appoint only after full consultation. The choice of a county Superintendent should no more be left to the contingencies of a popular election than the choice of a

⁸⁷*Mich. Jour. of Educ.* IV, 366 ff.

teacher should. In the one case as in the other, the private character and personal qualifications of the man are the essential conditions of success in the work to be done, and these personal characteristics and qualities are to be known only by a personal examination and inquiry, such as the mass of voters have no opportunity to make. The duties of the county Superintendent are no set routine of official acts which any man of sufficient ability may perform, without having any special fitness for the task, but like the work of a teacher they vary and change with every day and every district, and can only be successfully met by that personal tact and power which nature and ripe experience alone can give. His business is a vocation rather than an office, and I would as soon expect good schools when the teachers were nominated at a political caucus and elected at a township election, as a successful superintendency with a Superintendent chosen in the same way.

As the Constitution requires that one School Inspector shall be chosen annually in each township, the number of Inspectors might be reduced to one, and his duties be made simply concurrent with those of the Superintendent. I would suggest that these township Inspectors be required to meet once in two years at the County Seat and elect a Superintendent of Schools who should be required to be a man of competent learning and of practical skill and experience in the art of teaching. They might also be allowed to fix the salary, under the requirement that it should not be less than \$600 a year in counties having 16 organized townships, nor less than \$400 in counties having at least 10 organized townships. For smaller counties the salary to be paid might be left to their discretion, while in the largest counties, provision might be made for two Superintendents.

Should it be required that the officers thus selected should be commissioned by the Superintendent of Public Instruction, as in Pennsylvania, and be made subject to removal by him on complaint of the citizens of the county, and on proof of incompetency or unfaithfulness, a still further safeguard would be thrown around the office.

2nd. *The Powers and Duties of the Office.* The chief duties of the County Superintendent would be to examine and license teachers, and to visit and examine schools, and he should have the sole power to grant and revoke licenses. He may also have concurrent power with the township Inspectors, in the duty of establishing or changing the boundaries of Districts. He should receive and transmit the township Inspectors' reports, and should also himself report annually to the Superintendent of Public Instruction. A careful and plain adjustment of his authority will be important to the successfulness of his work.⁸⁸

The legislature took no action in the matter. This drew from Superintendent Gregory in 1864 the broadside:

It is a shame for us to adhere to the almost useless and farcical system of township inspectors, while our sister states all around us are rejoicing in the new and wonderful impulse given to their school systems by the adoption of this wiser and better plan of county supervision.

Superintendent Hosford carried on the campaign, ably seconded by the State Teachers' Association. In his report of 1866 he deplored the lack of thorough and competent supervision of the schools:

The people of our cities and large towns have been led to see the folly of attempting to conduct their schools in this loose way, or of leaving them without any oversight at all. They now employ competent men to take the supervision of their schools. These men devote their entire time to the business of looking after the interests of the various schools, except those who have charge of a less number of schools; these give a part of their time to teaching some of the more advanced classes, and the remainder they devote to the various schools of the city or town.

The benefits of this supervision are most manifest. These are seen in the order and system which prevail, instead of the

⁸⁸Report for 1860, pp. 22 ff.

confusion and disorder of former times. The improved methods of instruction also, which have been introduced into these schools, the grading of the schools, and classification of the pupils, are results of this intelligent supervision. The extended courses of study, and the rapid progress of the pupils in these courses, make evident the advantages of this supervision.

The country schools cannot enjoy all the advantages of the schools in the cities and large towns; hence every facility should be given them which may aid in the thorough prosecution of their work. It is the conviction of the best educators, that nothing will tend to increase the efficiency of these schools so much as a system of thorough supervision. It would be the duty of the County Superintendent to examine all the teachers. He should have the exclusive power of issuing certificates of qualification, and of annulling them. It would be his duty to hold a Teacher's Institute at least once every year in some central part of the county, and all the teachers should be required to attend this Institute. It should also be the duty of the Superintendent to visit all the schools of the county, that he may learn their condition, and counsel with the teachers, as to methods of teaching, to aid in properly grading the schools—in short, to be the adviser of the teachers of the county, and not only to advise with the teachers, but with the School Boards in reference to the erection of school buildings, the choosing of sites for schoolhouses, and in reference to all those things necessary to secure the highest efficiency of the schools in the county.

At a meeting of State Superintendents of Public Instruction, held in Washington, February last, considerable time was spent in discussing the question of county superintendency.

In many of the States represented, this system of school supervision has been in operation for many years, and the unanimous testimony was that the system was most successful in its working, and all had come to feel that this was a fixed and absolutely necessary part of their school systems.

Believing, as I do, that the best interests of our schools are suffering for the want of vigorous supervision, and knowing that the present system fails to meet this want, I most earnestly recommend to the consideration of the present Legislature the propriety of adopting the system of county superintendency.⁸⁹

COUNTY SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS

The following year, 1867, the legislature enacted a law establishing the county superintendency. These are the main features of the law:

1. Term of service was made two years.
2. Elected by popular vote.
3. Compensation from three to five dollars per day to be determined by board of supervisors. Number of days to be no less than the number of school districts and townships in the county.
4. Certificate teachers.
5. Revoke certificates for cause.
6. Visit each school in county at least once a year. (This function no longer a part of the duties of the school inspector.)
7. Promote improvement of school conditions by lectures and teachers' institutes.
8. To be subject to such rules and regulations as the superintendent of public instruction might from time to time prescribe.
9. The act not to take effect in any county unless there be at least ten districts in the county. In such counties the school inspectors officiated as before.⁹⁰

No educational and professional qualifications were demanded of this new school officer as Superintendent Gregory desired, and against the advice of the Teachers' Association and the superintendents of public instruction, the legislature made the office subject to popular

⁸⁹Report for 1866, pp. 5 ff.

⁹⁰Act No. 55 of 1867.

vote, another example of party politics and the fear of officials who were not directly responsible to the electorate. The number of times the schools might be inspected in excess of once depended upon the board of supervisors and, if the board should be liberal, on the quality of his horse and the conditions of the roads. A present day county commissioner of schools is kept very busy if with hard roads and an automobile he gets in each school district more than twice a year.

It is quite clear that no supervision in the proper use of the term was possible under this law. It was merely inspection and the giving of advice, which had been the practice of the school inspectors when they did their full duty. Local politics, also, had too great an opportunity to put one of the faithful into the best paying job that the county afforded; an opportunity that frequently was not overlooked. In the case of a qualified or a well instructed official the term of two years was too short; for the other type it was two years too many.

However, the State Teachers' Association resolved "That we hail the county superintendency; we recognize in it a most important step toward the elevation of the primary school to a higher and more powerful place in the moralizing and christianizing influences of the day."

From the time of passage until its final repeal the legislature was bombarded with petitions for the abolition of the office on the one hand, and with remonstrances against the repeal of the law on the other. The Committee on Education of the House reported on the matter in 1871. It was the opinion of the committee that in some counties the law had worked satisfactorily

and in others not. In the latter case it might be the fault of the people in not electing efficient men and not the fault of the law. A little more time would tend to place the blame where it belonged. It was urged by the petitioners that the system was too expensive but the reply was that had the school inspectors done their duty, under the old law, that there would be little difference in the cost. Complaint was made that teachers' wages had gone up because certain superintendents had refused to issue more certificates than there were school districts in the county. The committee held that such an act was beyond the power of the superintendent and that at the close of his term he be retired to private life. Objection was made that the superintendents could not visit the schools more than once a year and in some cases schools were not visited at all. This was agreed with by the committee, which stated also that sooner or later assistant superintendents must be provided for and at any rate the committee thought that one visit a year by a competent man was worth half a dozen from one who left his farm or workshop for the purpose.

In formulating a brief for the law the committee stated that without doubt the qualification of teachers had been raised and that great deference should be paid to the opinions of those who had spent years in the work of education. Without exception they had found such persons united in commendation of the system of county superintendents of schools:

After a thorough investigation, and upon the best information your Committee could obtain, they are unanimous in the opinion that the present system is correct in theory, and successful in

practice when the people have elected efficient superintendents. They fear its repeal would be a step backward, changes in our educational system should be made with great care and caution, and only when one system is clearly a failure, or another clearly superior. Failing to see any other system of superintendency superior to the present one, it seems to us clear that it ought to be retained, and be more thoroughly tested.⁹¹

Nevertheless dissatisfaction continued to increase around the nodes of expense, inefficiency, and one-man power until finally the legislature in 1875 repealed the law establishing the county superintendent of schools, and much to the surprise of many, even of the opponents of the repealed law, practically re-established the old township system of 1836-1867.⁹²

TOWNSHIP SUPERINTENDENTS

The act establishing township superintendents of schools was almost identical in its provision with the law repealed by it and the duties were quite the same. The power given them was mainly advisory. The district boards had immediate charge of the schools, engaged and paid the teachers and prescribed text books and courses of study.

Superintendent Briggs in 1876 said with respect to the township superintendent:

Those charged with the duties which the law imposed should be men of special training, familiar with the needs and the workings of the schools, competent to advise teachers and school boards and to assist them in the details with which they may be partially or wholly unacquainted; and they should be earnest,

⁹¹*House Journal* for 1871, II, 950 ff.

⁹²Act No. 42 of 1875.

faithful, and impartial, as well, in the discharge of their official trusts. Such a supervision as this is certainly contemplated by the act creating these officers, yet it is beyond the ability of most townships to secure it under the law as it exists. The supervision that the schools generally, in the rural districts, stand in need of today, will not and cannot come under the present system, and the reasons for it are evident. Had the law of 1867 been retained and so modified as to do away with the vital objections that were made to it, our schools would have been in better condition than they are now.⁹³

However, since the law was in force the right course of action was to do the best possible work under the conditions. The main suggestion in this respect was to form county associations of township superintendents for the purpose of pooling their experience and working out a uniform system for the county as a whole, which had been one of the duties of the former county superintendent.

Four years after the law was enacted the township superintendents were called upon to give their opinion of the value of the office which they held and to make such criticisms as their experience might warrant. Practically all of them were in favor of abolishing the office and of returning to some form of county supervision.

The main criticisms were as follows:

1. No power to get things done and but little attention given to advice. "Oh, he's nothin' but a farmer; what's he know 'bout skules? Guess we know what we want without his interferin'."

⁹³Report for 1876, pp. lxiv ff.

2. Difficult to refuse certificate to any applicant as the official is too close to the local situation.
3. Dearth of competent men for the place.
4. Term but one year—not time to see any policy through.
5. Only part-time employment with but small remuneration.
6. Majority of superintendents fail to attend the county association meetings.
7. Wages of teachers have been lowered and certification standards reduced.⁹⁴

Reaction was beginning to set in by the time the next legislature met in 1877. House Bill No. 121 sought to repeal the act of 1875, Bill No. 123 aimed to provide for a county superintendent, and Bill No. 155 was drawn to provide for district superintendents of schools. The first and last were tabled upon adverse report of the Committee on Education and the second was lost by a vote of 46 to 39.

Superintendent Tarbell in 1877 took up the problem by suggesting what he called an attainable scheme of supervision. It was his belief that unity, permanency, and consistency could be attained by the election of a county board of school examiners at a meeting of the township superintendents of the county. Certification of teachers would be in the control of this board and certificates granted would be valid throughout the county. Township superintendents were to report to the county board with respect to the quality of work done by each teacher and the condition of the schools in each district. A similar report was to be made at the annual town meeting. The township superintendents were also to have such control over teacher and schools as corre-

⁹⁴Report for 1879, pp. xxxii ff.

sponded to that which was exercised by city superintendents of schools. If these changes should be accepted, the

. effect would be to relieve the township superintendents of that item of their duties, which gives them their greatest annoyance, and is least profitably performed, as a rule, and would add to their powers in directions more to their pleasure, and the profit of the schools.⁹⁵

At the meeting of the Michigan State Teachers' Association for the year 1877, Mr. C. A. Gower, Superintendent of Schools, Saginaw, read a paper on "Local Supervision of County Schools."⁹⁶ His ideas in the matter are of interest for the following year he was elected to the office of state superintendent of public instruction. Examination of teachers, he thought, should be in the hands of a county board of three examiners who might properly be chosen by an association of township superintendents. The secretary of the board should be its executive officer and should be a prominent teacher of the county. This secretary should be the resident conductor of teachers' institutes, acting directly with the state department of education. Township teachers' meetings should be held at least once a month:

The state department being associated with the county board in the Institute, and the county board with the local authorities, and the people in the township teachers' meetings, these meetings would furnish a valuable medium of disseminating correct educational principles and of directing systematic reform in the state.

With means of securing properly qualified teachers, worth while county institutes, and township teachers'

⁹⁵Report for 1877, pp. xxv ff.

⁹⁶*Ibid.*, pp. 243 ff.

meetings, the work of visitation of schools, though not to be neglected, would become of secondary importance and might safely be entrusted to the township superintendents:

The visitation would then be for the purpose of reporting to the county board the size of the school, studies pursued, and its needs; the apparent success of the teacher in discipline and instruction; in what respect the teacher is strong and what weak. These reports should be made twice each term, soon after opening and near its close.

Both Superintendent Tarbell and Superintendent Gower were in favor of a system of supervision which would link closely the various school authorities. County superintendents without means of touching the districts through township officers made an inefficient and unwieldy system, while a township system without some county official was equally unsatisfactory from the point of view of developing any dynamic connections with the state office. Both state superintendents in theory, then, provided for an active township system strong in its nearness to the schools, and working within the county unit which was strong in its nearness to the state department. The weakness lay in the fact that a mere administrative scheme could in no wise miraculously produce competent men for the office when they were not to be had, nor secure the nomination and election of competent men when they were available. Such a scheme could not bring about the type of supervision which Professor Payne of the University of Michigan in discussing Mr. Gower's paper held was desirable:

Supervision, to be truly competent, must attain the following ends: It must discover what is wrong and must prescribe

rational remedies; it must be based on a criticism which is both analytic and synthetic. It is an extremely easy matter to discover the fact that a man is sick; but it is a matter which wholly passes ordinary competence to locate diseases with exactness and to make a rational prescription for them. And so it may be very easy to discover faults in school administration, but it is often extremely difficult to point out the means for their cure; yet unless this can be done school supervision is plainly incompetent. To supervise the affairs of a mine, of a bank, or of a railroad requires a specific kind of knowledge which comes only from the study of a special topic and is hence called professional; and similarly school supervision will be competent just in proportion as it is *professional*.

School conditions under the township superintendents were going from bad to worse. Superintendent Gower in 1879 said that attendance in the rural schools had decreased, that the standards of qualification of teachers had been lowered fifty per cent and the wages had been lowered at least twenty-five per cent. Three bills were introduced in the House during this session, 1879, to provide for a county commissioner of schools but all failed to pass.

In 1881, however, the legislature passed an act revising and consolidating the school laws then in force and at the same time made provision for a county board of examiners as previously recommended by the state department of education. The members of this board, three in number, were elected for a term of three years by the chairman of the several boards of township school inspectors. The county board annually elected one of their members to serve as secretary and executive officer of the board. The duty of certificating teachers was

transferred from the township board of school examiners to that of the county board. The county board was also authorized to revoke certificates for cause.

Provision was made for an annual joint meeting of the county board of school examiners and the chairmen of the several boards of township inspectors "for the purpose of consulting and advising with reference to the more efficient supervision of the schools and the teachers in charge."

Among the specific duties of the secretary of the county board of school examiners was this:

To visit any school in the county and examine into its conditions whenever he shall receive notice from the chairman of the board of school inspectors of the township in which such school is being taught that said school is not successfully and profitably conducted and report the result of his investigation to the board of school examiners. If, after such investigation, he deems the teacher of such school incompetent in any respect, he may call a special meeting of the board of school examiners for the purpose of suspending or revoking the certificate of said teacher, and cite said teacher to appear before such meeting.⁹⁷

This law placed direct inspection within the powers of the township officials with nothing in the nature of professional qualifications demanded of candidates for the office. Some help might be given the chairman by attendance at the annual county meeting but in the nature of things it could be but slight.

Indirect supervision of the schools was strengthened by placing the certificating powers with the county board for under this provision local influence was largely negated and candidates were much more apt to be cer-

⁹⁷Act No. 164 of 1881.

tified on their merits. Direct inspection of schools was made only by request.

From the point of view of an administrative system this was an improvement on the organization of 1875-81 but as a means of school supervision, as will be shown, there is little to be said for it.

COUNTY BOARD OF EXAMINERS

The second year after the law of '81 went into effect complaints began to come in from the secretaries that the township chairmen were giving them little or no information with respect to the schools and the character of the work being done by the teachers. A secretary in one of the eastern counties said:

I desire to call your attention to that provision of the law requiring the chairman of the boards of school inspectors to visit schools. That part of the work has been almost a total failure in this county. From the fifteen townships I have been unable to get but eight reports, and of those received more than half are so imperfect and unintelligible that they are worthless. . . . Scarcely one of them contains any comment as to character of work done by teachers. . . . It has occurred to me that if the law could be so amended as to give the secretary of the board of examiners the power of visiting the schools, and to make his compensation sufficient so that he could devote his whole time to school work, much more could be accomplished by the board of examiners.⁹⁸

A list of the county examiners as given in the report for 1882 shows them to have been recruited from twenty-seven different occupations.⁹⁹ The most fre-

⁹⁸Report for 1882, p. 13.

⁹⁹*Ibid*, 76 ff.

quent are teachers, 37%; farmers, 18%; lawyers, 11%; all others, 34%. The chairmen of the boards drawn from most frequent occupations were teachers, 38%; lawyers, 16%; farmers, 14%; all others, 32%. It is quite evident from these data that neither public nor teachers were sensitive to the problem of the professional status of the teaching body. No lawyer or doctor would have allowed the quality of his work to have been passed upon by or would have received suggestion from a farmer, clerk, druggist, banker, brick layer, or lumberman. Nor can we imagine such a heterogeneous group making up the examining board which passed upon the qualifications of a lawyer or a physician to practice.

In Superintendent Gass' report for 1883 figures are given to show the inefficiency of what was called school supervision. It appears that there were 9,000 schools in the state which according to law must be visited at least once each term. Allowing three terms to the year the minimum number of legal visitations was 27,000. Reports showed, however, that only 4,555 official visits were made and these in 2,982 schools, leaving 6,018 schools entirely unnoticed by the township board. One-third of the teachers employed were absolutely inexperienced and four-fifths were found qualified to receive only third grade certificates. "Notwithstanding the amount of money expended and the great interests at stake in these schools, they were largely without intelligent or effective supervision. Novices and incompetents were left as much to themselves in their work as teachers of the most successful experience."¹⁰⁰

¹⁰⁰Report for 1883, pp. xxxvi ff.

To remedy these conditions Superintendent Gass recommended that the secretary of the county board have general oversight of the schools of the county and a directive authority over the work of the township inspectors. He was to be the chief supervising officer and do a large part of the task of supervision himself, though the township officers were not to be relieved of their legal duties. He also recommended that the secretary or county superintendent should not be an elective officer but be appointed by the county board of examiners and thus be placed "as far as possible beyond the reach of political bias and influence." Better results would be obtained from the township inspectors, according to this plan, by calling them frequently into councils and discussing the needs of the schools and advising them as to the best means of management and imparting instruction. "This plan embraced county and township supervision, the latter supplementing the former to such an extent as to make it thorough and efficient in every county."

Three years later Superintendent Nelson advocated some system of county superintendence "well remunerated, and, as far as possible, removed from the petty jealousies and intrigues of political partisanship."

The legislature of 1887 enacted a law with respect to school supervision which followed very closely the spirit of the general recommendations made by Superintendent Gass. Provision was made for the *appointment* of a secretary of the board of county examiners for a term of one year by the two school examiners and the

judge of probate. It was made the duty of the secretary among others, to examine candidates for teachers' certificates:

To visit each of the schools in his county at least once each year and to examine carefully the discipline, the mode of instruction, and the progress and proficiency of the pupils: *Provided* that in case the secretary is unable to visit all the schools of the county, as herein required, he may, with the approval of the other members of the board of examiners, appoint such assistant visitors as may be necessary, who shall perform such duties pertaining to the visitation and supervision of schools as said secretary shall direct; to promote by such means as he may devise, subject to the advice of the board of school examiners, the improvement of the schools in his county and the elevation of the character and qualifications of the teachers and officers thereof.¹⁰¹

With respect to the township school officials it was made the duty of the chairman of the board

To have general supervisory charge of the schools of his township, subject to such advice and direction as the secretary of the county board of examiners may give;

To notify the secretary of the board of school examiners of any school within his township that is not being conducted in a sufficiently successful and profitable manner.

This law substantially inaugurated once more the county superintendency. It met objections to the law of 1867 in that the so-called one man power was not so evident, as the secretary acted in connection with an elected board. Also some consideration was given to the township board, whereas the earlier law practically ignored the township officers. In the nature of the

¹⁰¹Act No. 266 of 1887.

problem, there could be, as we now view it, no thorough-going supervision of the schools under this law, neither could the schools get the best results possible except in those areas where the people were alive to their needs. Superintendent Estabrook in his report of 1888 bears out this statement:

Although but fifteen months have elapsed since the provisions of this law went into effect, it has been demonstrated that where competent and conscientious persons are selected as secretaries the benefits that are claimed would result from the change from township to county supervision have been fully realized. Unfortunately, in some counties in the state men notoriously unfit for the position have succeeded in having themselves appointed to the office of secretaries, and in some instances the statute has been unjustly held responsible for the evils resulting from its improper and unsatisfactory administration. In some cases the office of secretary has been filled by men who have failed to make a success in some one of the professions and who have sought it simply for the salary attached to the position. These persons having no especial fitness for the position and lacking in interest and enthusiasm for the work, have performed their duties in a perfunctory way without any apparent appreciation of the magnitude of the interests intrusted to them. . . . But fortunately these cases are exceptional, and as a rule I think the change has been acceptable to the people.¹⁰²

The dangers that might arise under popular election were safeguarded somewhat by the provision for the first time of educational qualifications for the office. It did not, however, prevent the candidacy of those who had left the work of teaching to enter some other means of livelihood from undertaking the supervision of the schools of a county.

¹⁰²Report for 1888, p. ix.

The report of 1891 gives the number of occupations pursued by county commissioners as follows:

| | | | |
|--------------------|-----|------------------------|------------------|
| Teachers | 43% | Printers | 1% |
| Lawyers | 12 | Bookkeepers | 1 |
| Not given | 7 | County Clerks | 1 |
| Farmers | 6 | Lumbermen | 1 |
| Clergymen | 3 | Merchants | 1 |
| Writers | 2 | Grain buyers | 1 |
| Housekeepers | 1 | Students | 1 |
| Druggists | 1 | Insurance Agents | 1 ¹⁰³ |

COUNTY COMMISSIONERS

Superintendent Pattengill in 1894 commented on the good work being done by the better county commissioners of the state but no suggestions of change in the office are found until the report of Superintendent Hammond in 1897.

Before the law of 1891 went into effect Superintendent Hammond found that the head of the state department of education was a man but little known or respected throughout the state and that

. . . . the executive state officials regarded the superintendent of public instruction as only a harmless person who was nominated to fill out the state ticket, and elected to visit his deputy occasionally on a Saturday and to attend teachers' institutes during the summer; or, if a man of ability, he was only expected to hold his position for a few months until he too could turn politician and receive a political appointment. He was not expected to direct the educational affairs of the state, nor even to attempt it; or if ever such an impression did prevail, Mr. Superintendent must wait until all other legislative matters were

¹⁰³Report for 1891, pp. xc ff.

settled and all other claims against the state for official services were allowed or disposed of.

Gradually this has changed somewhat, especially since the law enacting the office of the county commissioner of schools was passed in 1891, since which time the state superintendent has in each county of the state the aid of a corps of co-workers that includes a county officer with his assistants in the examining board, with whom he may labor systematically and effectively.¹⁰⁴

In order to make this county educational office more efficient Superintendent Hammond recommended that the term of office be increased to four years, "as that is often enough for the position to be made the football of local politicians," and that in all counties having more than one hundred schools the commissioner be authorized to employ a clerk for the period of the school year. Six years later, 1903, the recommendation with respect to the term of office was made effective during the superintendency of Mr. Fall; and thirteen years later, 1910, during the term of Mr. Wright, a clerk was allowed in counties having one hundred or more schools.

In 1907 Superintendent Wright inaugurated the policy of holding school officers' meetings in the several counties of the state. This was part of a general program to make the supervisory work of the state department more efficient. The legislature, therefore, in 1909 authorized the county commissioner of schools in each county to

Call a meeting of the school officers of his county¹⁰⁵ at least once in each year for the purpose of consultation, advice, and instruction upon matters pertaining to the management and welfare of the public schools of the county.

¹⁰⁴Report for 1897, pp. 1-3.

¹⁰⁵The township board of school inspectors was abolished by the Constitution of 1908.

It shall be the duty of the superintendent of public instruction to assist the county commissioner of schools in conducting said meeting of school officers and he shall attend said meeting either in person or by representative.¹⁰⁶

These meetings according to Superintendent Keeler in 1916 were the most important agencies in bringing about the much desired co-operation between the state department of education and the local units of administration.

The data presented above with respect to inspection and supervision show very clearly how totally inadequate they are. The best schools in the United States are to be found in the cities where provision is made for real inspection and supervision by competent school authorities. It would seem quite logical, then, to imitate the organization and administration of such schools, so far as the nature of the problem allows, in order to better the educational conditions of the rural schools.

As matters stand at present the county commissioner of schools is directed by law to visit each school in his district at least once each year. From the point of view of adequate supervision of instruction this is, of course, the veriest farce. But the number of schools in the county and the number of days schools are in session permit nothing better.

As shown in another chapter Michigan has gone some distance, so far as the statutes are concerned, toward permissive consolidation of control within township limits. Yet it seems more logical to develop our educational resources, organization, and administration

¹⁰⁶Act No. 112 of 1909.

within the county as a unit rather than the township. With the schools consolidated within the county on the basis of educational and community needs, with a county board of education elected by popular vote, with a county superintendent of schools having the qualifications and tenure of office such as prevail in the best cities, appointed by the county board of education, with a sufficient number of assistants to make inspection and supervision effective we may then say that the country boy and girl are being offered that equality of educational opportunity which our democracy demands.

The efforts of various superintendents of public instruction to influence the inspection and supervision of schools by local officials and to secure closer relationship between the state department and local workers in order that better practices might be developed has been presented, and we may now turn to the work done in the field of inspection and supervision by the state department itself.

Upon the establishment of the county normal training classes in 1903 the department of education was directed to supervise the course of study, instruction, and critic work in all such classes. No systematic work of this character was done, however, until 1911 when a county normal supervisor was appointed to do more thoroughly what the deputy superintendent had done when time and opportunity were favorable. Until 1919 this supervisor was listed in the department as a clerk. But at that time the salary was raised and the office was recognized in the budget. The office, as such, has since

been abolished and the work is done by one of the assistant superintendents.

The high school tuition law of 1909 was amended in 1917 to the effect that high schools to which tuition was paid by districts for the further education of such children as had finished the eighth grade must be inspected and approved by the state superintendent. This work was done by the deputy superintendent in addition to his other duties from 1917 to 1919. Provision was then made for the appointment of a high school inspector with the rank of assistant superintendent who should devote his time to this particular duty of the office.

In the same year, 1919, the legislature authorized the appointment of a director of physical education in the schools of Michigan. The major part of his time is given to inspection and supervision.

The passage of the rural agricultural school law in 1919 provided that the schools organized under this act must be supervised by the superintendent of public instruction and were, accordingly, placed by him in the rural division or department of the office. There are four assistant superintendents in this division whose time is devoted to the inspection and supervision of rural schools.

In 1921 private, parochial, and denominational schools were placed under the supervision of the superintendent of public instruction and since that time it has been the policy of department representatives to visit these schools whenever they find themselves in the vicinity of one. Upon request or when some complaint

reaches the office a special visit is made by some member of the department.

The supervision of the day schools for the deaf has been in theory at least a duty of the state superintendent and the records show that occasional visitations have been made. But not until 1923 were they definitely placed under department supervision together with the day schools for the blind and crippled children which were authorized by the legislature of that year.

The vocational work, the continuation schools, and the civilian rehabilitation work are under the State Board of Control for Vocational Education with the superintendent of public instruction as chairman and executive officer. Visitation, supervision, and direction of all the vocational work in the state (agricultural, industrial, and home economics) together with the work of all continuation classes, and civilian rehabilitation operate under the superintendent's authority. The group doing this work spend the greater part of their time in local inspection and supervisory work.

Inspection in the various fields of activity which have been mentioned are checked up whenever changes are suggested or directed in two ways: First, by means of reports to the superintendent, principal, and to the board; second, by further visits and frequently by the use of blank forms.

A summary of events as noted in the chapter is given below:

| | | |
|---------|------|---|
| Pierce | 1837 | Statute provided for inspection of schools by township school inspector. |
| Sawyer | 1841 | Recommended the system of county superintendency as developed in N. Y. |
| Mayhew | 1845 | Proposed replacing the township board with a county board of school examiners. |
| Mayhew | 1855 | Proposed the office of school commissioner for each senatorial district. |
| Gregory | 1860 | Proposed electing county superintendent by a board rather than by popular vote. |
| Gregory | 1863 | Outlines the duties of the school inspectors. |
| Hosford | 1866 | Recommended that the system of county superintendents be inaugurated. |
| Hosford | 1867 | Legislature established the office of county superintendent of schools. |
| Hosford | 1871 | Committee of legislature favored continuing the office for a time, at least. |
| Briggs | 1875 | Legislature repealed act of 1867 and established a system of township superintendents. |
| Tarbell | 1877 | Proposed a system of county school examiners to act in co-operation with township inspectors. |
| Gower | 1881 | Legislature made the above provision. |
| Gass | 1883 | Recommended the <i>appointment</i> of a secretary or county superintendent by the county board of examiners. |
| Nelson | 1886 | Recommended system of county superintendents "removed from political partisanship." |
| Nelson | 1887 | Legislature provided for a secretary of the county board of school examiners with such duties prescribed as virtually to make him county superintendent of schools. |

| | | |
|---------|------|---|
| Fitch | 1891 | Legislature changed title of secretary to county commissioner of schools. |
| Wright | 1907 | Inaugurated meetings of county school officers. |
| | | Asked for a high school inspector. |
| Johnson | 1919 | Legislature permitted appointment of a high school inspector. |
| Johnson | 1921 | Legislature provided for inspection and supervision of private and parochial schools by the superintendent of public instruction. |

CHAPTER V

THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE STATE DEPARTMENT—THE JUDICIAL FUNCTIONS

WITH respect to the office of Superintendent of Public Instruction, the judicial function shall be defined as that group of activities which deal with:

1. The settling of all controversies among school officials or patrons arising out of differences of opinion with respect to the meaning and intent of provisions in the school code.

In the report for 1837 Superintendent Pierce proposed among other duties of the superintendent of public instruction that he be authorized

To hear and decide all questions arising under the public school system, and the decision when made to be final. The object of this is to give the superintendent appellate jurisdiction in all matters arising under the statute relating to public instruction. This jurisdiction is given to the superintendent of the New York system, and was designed to give him the power of putting at rest all controversies arising in the administration of the system of which he has the supervision. His decision in all matters of appeal is final, and every case brought before him is disposed of without expense to the parties, except such as incurred in the preparation of their papers, which are, however, always received without regard to form, if they are in substance correct. Says Mr. Dix—"If the system has any defect, it is that the super-

intendent has no power by law to enforce the execution of his own decisions." This is indeed a defect, and it will doubtless be considered important to provide against it.¹

All proposals in this report were favorably acted upon by the legislature with this one exception. Doubtless in those days of decentralization it seemed highly inadvisable to put such power in the hands of any one man.

In 1839 the House Committee on Education was instructed to enquire into the expediency of authorizing by law an appeal from the decision of school inspectors to the superintendent of public instruction. Such appeals, doubtless, would have been concerned with the forming of school districts and the regulating and altering of their boundaries; also with attaching persons and property to school districts. In both matters there was no appeal from the decision of the board of inspectors. This was of course a very touchy local problem. No report of this committee on the expediency of such an appeal is recorded.²

Apparently the development of the judicial function rested here until 1909. In the Act of that year making possible the organization of township districts it was provided that upon the appeal of ten or more qualified voters in any township district, who feel aggrieved with respect to certain actions of the board of education the superintendent of public instruction, if he considers the matter of moment, may give a hearing—"After the hearing and due consideration, said superintendent shall render his decision which shall be final."³

¹Report for 1837, p. 42.

²*House Journal* of 1839, p. 329.

³Act No. 117 of 1909.

Eight years later the legislature provided for the establishment of rural agricultural schools whenever the county commissioner of schools should be presented with a petition to that effect from twenty-five per cent of the legal school electors in three or more contiguous rural school districts and the superintendent of public instruction is convinced that such a union of districts is advisable. "The superintendent of public instruction shall have authority to confirm the action of the several contiguous districts in forming the proposed rural agricultural school, or he may require that one or more of such districts be not included in the group to form a rural agricultural school. His action in the matter shall be final."⁴

In an amendment to this act in 1921 provision was made for appeal to the superintendent from certain actions of the board of education in control of the school. After investigation: "the superintendent of public instruction shall have authority to review, confirm, set aside or amend such action, order or decision of said board of education. His decision in the matter named in this proviso shall be final."⁵

The exercise of some degree of power over local school officials was made possible by the legislature in 1905. It was then provided that when the superintendent of public instruction was satisfied upon evidence submitted that a county commissioner did not possess the qualifications required by law to entitle him to hold the office, or when incompetent or guilty of misconduct

⁴Act No. 226 of 1917.

⁵Act No. 17 of 1921.

he might request the governor to remove such official from office.⁶

Under the township district act of 1909 the superintendent was authorized to remove any trustee of any township school district for illegal disposition of public moneys or neglect to discharge the duties of his office. Without court action is begun by the deposed trustee within thirty days to set aside the order of the superintendent such order is not thereafter subject to legal proceedings.⁷

Two years later, 1911, the superintendent was granted the power formerly held by the township board to remove any member of any school board except in city school districts for the same reasons as mentioned in the township district act and with the same provision with respect to court proceedings.⁸

There is much to be said in favor of carrying all disputed matters arising under the school code to the department of public instruction for decision other than the fact that such practice is less expensive and more expeditious. Education has become so technical in many of its aspects, has become so far removed from common experience as witness the growing body of professional subject matter, is so closely related with other fields of public endeavor, is so subject to modification of policy and to changes in means and methods that the trained and experienced executive in the field of education can best render a decision which will be in

⁶Act No. 72 of 1905.

⁷Act No. 117 of 1909.

⁸Act No. 217 of 1911.

harmony with educational progress and the supervisory plans within the state. Decisions rendered by any other than the experienced educator in connection with many, though not all, of the questions or disputes that arise could not be so made.

CHAPTER VI

CENTRALIZATION—NATIONAL AND STATE—A SUMMARY OF TENDENCIES

DURING the colonial period the people were accustomed to the practice of centralization in the control of their affairs both civil and religious as well as to the practice of control by an aristocratic group. Leadership and public trust were vested, depending upon the colony, in a landed gentry, wealthy merchants, families with an intellectual ancestry, and English representatives of Church and State. A stake in the government, so to speak, was recognized as being possessed only by those who owned property and hence paid taxes; and property qualifications were a *sine qua non* of citizenship and eligibility for office. Seats in the meeting house were determined by the wealth, family and importance of the individual members. One's place on the roster of students in the colonial college was determined by the same criteria; in social functions rank was of the greatest importance.

The makers of the Federal Constitution were dominantly of the aristocratic class. The period of Federalist control was one in which men of wealth and of trained intellect shaped the development of the new experiment in government and in this experiment but

few saw any place for manhood suffrage or for a free system of public education. The majority thoroughly distrusted the motives and the capacity of the masses.

It seems quite probable had there not been millions of acres of unsettled lands to the west of the Alleghenies that the original states would have been permanently dominated by an office-holding class belonging to the aristocracy. In the development of the West emphasis was placed upon the man's ability successfully to cope with problems that were common to all—strength, initiative, perseverance—in short manhood was the test that was applied and it was upon this evaluation that the new states based the right of suffrage. And to these new states and territories those who were dissatisfied with the conservatism and with the social and political controls of the East wended their way. This naturally reacted upon the older states for they in order to retain the enterprising man who felt within him the concept of equality found it necessary to compete with the political and social conditions in the states and territories of the West where equality was a reality.

In the West there grew up a most decided antipathy to an office-holding class and a very thoroughgoing belief that any upstanding man was capable of holding any office; and that duties connected with public office should be so simplified that any man could successfully perform them.

In the East cities began to grow rapidly under the impetus of the industrial revolution and workingmen began to congregate in large numbers in these centers. From about 1825 workingmen's organizations began to

increase and by 1834 a national federation had been completed. The first political organization of this group was formed in Philadelphia in 1828 with a typical party program as set forth in the *Mechanics' Free Press* of April 16, 1831:

Universal education, abolition of chartered monopolies, equal taxation, revision or abolition of the militia system, a less expensive law system, all officers to be elected directly by the people, a lien law for laborers, no legislation on religion.

It was the votes of the workingmen of the Northeast combined with the votes of the Southwest and West that elected Jackson to the presidency in 1828 and marked the culmination of forces long at work for popular, decentralized political control. The common man had succeeded, at least in theory, in securing the possibility of political self-expression.

Both centralization as expressed by action of Congress and by judicial decisions, and decentralization as expressed by the doctrine of states rights were present during the period preceding the Civil War. At one time or another the greater part of the states held to each of these doctrines depending upon whether the one or the other interpretation suited them best at the particular time. However, the Civil War greatly enhanced the power of the national government and resulted in the definite conception that the United States is a nation and not merely a federal union.

After the Civil War began a period of great expansion and at the same time a centrally controlled, nation wide development of various industrial enterprises. While comparatively undeveloped and confined within the

borders of the state there was no call for other than state control of industrial growth; but when the nationwide network of railroads, telephone, telegraph, and various other trust controlled organizations upon which society was dependent began to spring up, the states were no longer able adequately to control conditions and by 1890 the federal government by the passage of legislation such as the Inter-State Commerce Act and the Sherman Anti-Trust Act, by forming new departments of administration, and by instituting the movement for conservation began a rapid development towards consolidation of authority. This has continued regardless of the party in power and regardless of the protestations against such federal activity by party platforms. The Republican administration under Roosevelt though criticised unmercifully by the Democratic leaders was no more active in increasing the authority of the Federal government than the Democratic administration under Wilson which was in turn criticised by the Republicans. It is a movement, a necessity, which is stronger than any party, and whatever party may be in power its force must be recognized whether the leaders will or no.

This movement which has conditioned Federal development has its parallel within the states. Regardless of the fact that local control was at one time satisfactory within the borders of the states our relationships have become so complex, we are so dependent upon one another and upon combinations in control of the means through which our needs are satisfied that some authority more universal in its application than can be wielded by local authority must enter the field for purposes of

control. That the state has paralleled the nation in the development of these regulatory functions is seen from the following list of boards and commissions which have been created by the Michigan Legislature, creations which were unthought of by the generation of Civil War times. Such boards as were created at the outset for the purpose of carrying on the government are not given below—merely those which have developed in response to social need:

- 1871 Insurance Commission
- 1879 Board of Charities and Correction
- 1881 State Board of Health
- 1883 Board of Dental Examiners
- 1885 Board of Fish Commissioners
- 1885 Board of Pharmacy
- 1887 Banking Commission
- 1893 Pardon Board
- 1893 Dairy and Food Commission
- 1893 Board of Railway and Street Crossings
- 1895 Board of Law Examiners
- 1899 Board of Labor Commissioners
- 1899 Board of Registration in Medicine
- 1899 Inspector of Oils
- 1903 Board of Osteopathic Registration and Examiners
- 1905 Inspector of Orchards and Nurseries
- 1907 State Veterinary Board
- 1909 Board of Prison Industries
- 1909 Board of Optometry
- 1909 Board of Registration of Nurses
- 1909 Labor Commissioner
- 1909 Inspector of Drugs
- 1912 Industrial Accident Board
- 1913 Inspector of Apiaries
- 1913 Inspector of Hotels

- 1913 Board of Accountancy
- 1915 Board of Registration of Architects
- 1915 Board of Mediation and Conciliation
- 1919 Board of Control of Vocational Education

The apparent necessity of control by the state of matters which for the most part before 1890 did not concern it may naturally be expected to influence the educational interests of the state. It has been shown that education in the early history of the state was almost completely under local control but it in turn has become complex, diversified, and far reaching in its influence. Education is today with us not a local or minor but a universal or major enterprise and hence like a trust or great corporation doing business in all parts of the state and nation must be subjected to some central regulation and guidance for the good of the whole. Since 1905 these control features have been developing in the office of the superintendent of public instruction through legislative action. As a result he now has power to

- Remove local school officials from office for cause
- Recommend the removal of county commissioners from office for cause
- Hear appeals in certain cases and render final decision
- Issue a course of study and compel its use
- Institute proceedings to dissolve collegiate corporations
- Supervise private and parochial schools
- Examine and certificate teachers
- Regulate libraries and issue list of books from which purchases must be made
- Pass on plans for or additions to school buildings
- Condemn school buildings

Set time and place for teachers' institutes and appoint conductors

Appoint members of his staff and remove at his discretion

List books for schools from which list selections and purchases must be made

Control interscholastic athletics

Audit books of school districts

Appoint a Board of Visitors to inspect chartered educational institutions

Supervise all activities arising under the board of control for vocational education

Supervise and provide general rules for control of county normal training classes

Institute proceedings to compel all boards of education to observe the laws relating to schools

At this point a digression may be made to trace the development of the staff of the superintendent's office which aids in carrying out the duties which have devolved upon it. Reference has already been made to the fact that the early superintendents of public instruction, whatever their specific titles may have been, combined the disposal of school lands with such duties as were more particularly concerned with the school system. That this was an undesirable combination was recognized as early as 1838 by Governor Mason who advised that an assistant be appointed to care for the disposal of the school lands and thus allow the superintendent to give his time and thought to the betterment of school conditions. Again in 1841 the same matter was touched upon by Governor Woodbridge in his message to the legislature. The committee to whom the subject was referred reported in part as follows:

To perform well the duties connected with the care and disposal of the lands devoted to the purposes of education, the collection of dues, and the investment of moneys, requires a person who is every inch a business man; who has been bred to systematic business habits; who has all that industry and promptness of character; all that careful attention to minuteness; all that devotedness to business, as a pursuit; all that knowledge of men, and all that acquaintance with the value of property and securities, that distinguish eminent business men; while, to fill well the duties of guardian to the great interests of education in our primary schools requires a man of *no common intellectual endowments and attainments*; one enthusiastically devoted to the cause of popular education, in its broadest sense; one who can appreciate and portray its inestimable advantages; one who will make the present condition and means for the improvement of our primary schools the great object of his study; one who can readily discern and point out defects now existing in those schools; one who, by personal and written communication with teachers and others connected with this department of education can awaken an ardent desire for improvement; and one who by written and oral addresses to parents and guardians, and the public generally can arouse a noble and generous public sentiment in favor of these institutions, that will insure their success and rapid improvement. The evident impossibility of uniting these almost incompatible qualifications in one person, your committee look upon as a *very* serious objection against continuing the law as it now is.¹

The recommendation of the committee was carried out in 1843 by an act to organize the Land Office and the superintendent was relieved of that responsibility which was not within the original purpose of the office. The salary was thereupon cut from \$800 to \$500; the governor at this time was receiving a salary of \$1,500.²

¹*House Documents* for 1841, pp. 188-89.

²Act No. 42 of 1843.

In 1854 Superintendent Shearman felt that if the office was efficiently to be managed that the legislature should provide an office at Lansing for the sole use of the superintendent and also give him power to appoint a deputy superintendent. Not until 1859 was the request granted.³ By 1913 the work of the department had grown to such an extent that the legislature authorized the appointment of an assistant superintendent,⁴ in 1917 increased the number to two⁵ and through the budget of 1921 increased the number of assistant superintendents to eight. There are in addition three state supervisors of agricultural education, home economics, and industrial education respectively.

The powers of the superintendent of public instruction and the organization of the staff to perform the many duties which devolve upon the office were not dreamed of a quarter century ago. The office reaches or may reach into every field of educational endeavor within the state. It touches vitally nearly nine hundred thousand children who are being prepared in the schools of Michigan to shoulder the responsibilities of citizenship and to live clean, wholesome, and efficient lives. No other office in the state begins to compare with it in the numbers touched by its influence or in its possibilities of shaping the future citizen.

The permanence of every form of government rests upon a system of education adapted to it. There is a culture and a purpose, there are habits and ideals which peculiarly characterize every policy. These character-

³Act No. 42 of 1859.

⁴Act No. 197 of 1913.

⁵Act No. 22 of 1917.

istics must be inculcated in the masses of the people and the German system showed that this could be done through the common schools where the masses are reached. Whether we disagree with the characteristics inculcated by the German schools is beside the question. The fact is that it can be done, and it was done by means of the profound thought and the careful plans of those who as state officials had the educational affairs of the nation in charge.

With the great powers given to the Michigan state superintendent of public instruction goes a great responsibility. He must define those characteristics which are necessary for continuing a better democracy in such clear and simple terms that every teacher in the state may feel and grasp their import, and he must so organize the system that the knowledges and skills and attitudes that the boys and girls should have for the real business of life may be realized. If he has not the power as yet to accomplish the results sought for, a continuous program of effort should be made to secure it. That there is still room for further development is shown by the recommendations of Superintendent Johnson with which this study will close.

There are today in Michigan a number of branches of school work which need legislative attention. The first two are of paramount importance. The first is the question of finance. State school support at the present time in Michigan is not adequate. In 1911 the state furnished approximately forty-five per cent of the cost. At the present time the state meets about twenty-two per cent. In other words, the primary school fund should have doubled since 1911. Legislation looking to that end will be presented at the next Legislature and should be

passed. A part of the question of school support is the distribution of such funds. The present method of distribution is based on the census method which is obviously unfair. Three men each with an income of two thousand dollars a year face the situation of having to educate two, four, and six children respectively. If aid is to be given, obviously the man with six children needs three times more aid than the one with two and twice that of the one with four. Similarly the valuation of property available for school taxation should be considered in determining the amount of state aid to be extended. Legislation to this end will again be introduced at the next session of the Legislature.

Rural supervision is the second biggest problem challenging the leaders in Michigan education. The general feeling that exists in a good many places, that the County School Commissioner is merely a county officer to keep records and do a few of those things that are of general administrative and clerical nature, has hampered greatly the development of rural education in the state. Some method other than that of election should be provided for naming the County Commissioner. Higher standards should be required and that officer should have more help, more power, and higher remuneration. All educational activities in the county should be centered in the Commissioner's office. He should have power to nominate teachers. All of these things are to be presented to the next Legislature. Due to perfectly natural and proper opposition to further centralization of power in the Department of Public Instruction, it seems desirable that Commissioners should be named by the State Board of Education.

The problem of teacher training and certification is to my mind well on the way to solution. The present law requiring one year above a four year high school course also calls for additional work if the teacher is to remain in the profession. This will, within a few years, make a situation where practically all of our teachers will have at least two years of training.

The other questions relative to the certification of teachers rest so completely in the hands of the State Board of Education and the Superintendent of Public Instruction that there is no question but that they will be worked out by process of gradually raising the standards.

The teachers' institute was valuable in its day. Its value today is problematical because of the fact that the subjects presented there are very largely a rehash of the work the teachers have had. The present method of combining the institute in most cases with the sectional meetings of the State Association probably points the way to a final solution of the problem.

There is always a question as to how far the state should go in extending this supervision and inspection work. Some of this is absolutely necessary. On the other hand, there is danger of too much centralization. With adequate rural supervision I am inclined to believe that state supervision should not go very much farther than it is going at the present time except that special supervisors of art and music, and possibly a few kindred subjects, should be added. A legal basis for the present relationship between the Department and commercial schools and colleges might well be granted. The present situation, however, is good although it exists without warrant of law.

If the Department of Public Instruction is to assume the real educational leadership of the state, the superintendent must be given more power in determining educational policies. As a matter of fact, without warrant of law the situation at the present time is good, but so many things are done without having a legal basis that it is easy to see that situations where cooperation would not be possible might arise. It is quite probable that so long as the State Superintendent is elected by popular vote he will not be accorded the proper degree of educational leadership unless he can assume it by sheer weight of personality.

APPENDICES

APPENDICES

A

The constitutional provision for free schools,—Superintendent Mayhew.

The State Constitution provides that the Legislature shall, within five years from the time of its adoption, (which time has now expired,) provide for and establish a system of Primary Schools, whereby a school shall be kept, without charge for tuition, at least three months in each year, in every school district of the State. The Constitution further provides that any school district that shall neglect to maintain a school at least three months in each year, shall be deprived for the ensuing year of its proportion of the income of the Primary School Fund, and of all funds arising from taxes for the support of schools.

Our Public Money for the support of Primary Schools is derived from three sources:

1. The Primary School Interest Fund.
2. A tax of one mill on a dollar of the taxable property of each and every township of the State.
3. A voluntary tax which may be raised by the qualified voters of school districts at their annual district meetings, of not to exceed one dollar a scholar between the ages of four and eighteen years.

Now the estimated amount that may be realized from these three sources for the year 1857, under existing provisions of law, is as follows:

| | |
|--|--------------|
| 1. Income of the Primary School Fund..... | \$100,000.00 |
| 2. The tax of one mill on a dollar..... | 150,000.00 |
| 3. A voluntary tax of one dollar per scholar.. | 200,000.00 |

Total amount possible.....\$450,000.00

Now this possible amount of public money is sufficient to maintain a free school in each school district of the State, for full three months, according to the rates of remuneration hitherto paid to teachers, as shown by the reports received at this office. But shall we hence infer that the constitutional requirement is met? I think not; and for the following reasons:

1. The voluntary tax, which makes up nearly one-half of the estimated amount, may be raised only in part; and in many instances we know it is not raised at all. In such cases the estimated possible amount of public money is reduced nearly one-half. Moreover, the mill tax, (which is three-fifths of the remaining amount of public money as per estimate,) is not levied by the Supervisor, in too many instances, notwithstanding the statutes imperatively require that it be raised. The districts, hence, are often actually in the receipt of less than one-fourth of their proportion of the estimated amount of public money possible, under existing laws.

2. The full amount of public money possible to be raised under the statutes, is raised only in those districts and townships whose inhabitants are intelligent and enterprising, and who, fully appreciating the advantages of an education, and determined to secure them to their offspring, maintain good schools, eight or ten months during the year. In such cases the public money is usually spread out over the whole time, and the balance of teachers' wages is raised by rate-bill. Although existing statutes may thus be fully complied with, the constitutional requirement above cited, it seems to me, has not been met. This arises from the fact that previous Legislatures have themselves neglected to provide such statutory enactments as are contemplated by the Constitution.

The duty imposed upon the Legislature by the Constitution, it seems to me, implies two things: 1. That provision be made for maintaining a school "without charge for tuition, at least three months in each year, in every school district in the State." This provision should not depend upon the contingency of a popular vote in the districts, but should be imperative, and its observance

should be enforced by penalty and forfeiture. 2. Not only should provision be made for effectually raising the amount required to maintain a good school the constitutional term, without charge for tuition; but each district should be required actually thus to maintain a free school; and, in the language of the Constitution, any district neglecting to comply with this requirement should be "deprived for the ensuing year of its proportion of the income of the Primary School Fund, and of all funds arising from taxes for the support of Schools."

The Superintendent would recommend, as a convenient, efficient, and judicious mode of complying with the constitutional requirement, 1. That the obligatory mill tax be changed to a two mill tax; 2. That the qualified voters of school districts be authorized to raise a voluntary tax of two dollars for every scholar between the ages of four and eighteen years, resident of the district, instead of but one dollar, as at present; and 3. That in case provision be not otherwise made for maintaining a free school the constitutional term, the district board be authorized and required to estimate the amount of money necessary to be raised by tax to maintain a good school the requisite time, and that they embrace the same in the report which they are now required to make out and deliver to the supervisor between the last Monday of September and the second Monday of October in each year, to be by him levied upon the taxable property within the district; and that in failure whereof, or of otherwise maintaining a free school three months, the district be deprived of its proportion of public money the ensuing year.

With the above provisions incorporated into our statutes, the estimated amount which might be raised and received from all sources, aside from a rate bill, would, for the year 1857, be as follows:

| | |
|---|--------------|
| 1. Income of the Primary School Fund..... | \$100,000.00 |
| 2. The Tax of Two Mills on a Dollar..... | 300,000.00 |
| 3. A Voluntary Tax of Two Dollars per scholar.. | 400,000.00 |

Total amount possible.....\$800,000.00

Should the total amount of public money possible, under such statutes, be raised in any district or township, it might enable them to maintain a free school eight or ten months. But this is no longer than the interests of education, an economical policy, and sound domestic and political economy, alike require. And where the voluntary tax is not voted, there would still be effectual provision for the maintenance of a free school for at least the time contemplated by the Framers of the Constitution.

B

School architecture—Superintendent Gregory.

One of the essential conditions of a good school is a good school-house—a house commodious in size, convenient in structure, and healthful in arrangement. If a convenient shop and proper tools are needful to the success of the mechanic who works upon mere inanimate matter, how much more is a good school-room, properly arranged and fitted for the comfort and use of teacher and pupils, necessary to the workman who trains and instructs a group of active and restless minds. We may justly be proud of the costly and magnificent school buildings erected in many of our Union school districts within the past six or eight years. Some of the finest specimens of architecture in the State are Union schoolhouses. Nor are the primary districts without examples of elegant and convenient structures among those recently built.

But there still remain among us schoolhouses so mean and ill contrived, so devoid of either comfort or convenience, that a good and successful school is an impossibility in them. In not a few districts the Inspectors report the schoolhouses as utterly worthless, and some are described as not fit even for cow sheds or pig pens. I, myself, have visited primary schoolhouses in the State which ought to be indicted as public nuisances, and in

which, if the children were sent as a punishment, the entire community would cry out against its gross enormity and cruelty. I intend no sweeping condemnations, but I cannot withhold my indignant protest against schoolhouses which are little better than slaughter pens, in which every teacher sacrifices his health, and sickness is the inevitable fate of every faithful pupil; where good order is physically impossible, and neither study nor instruction can go on but with the greatest difficulty, and I may add, the greatest danger.

It has occasioned me no little chagrin, when visiting some districts, in which, at a generous expense, the people have erected a good building, to find it both inconvenient and unwholesome. The want of some more definite and correct notions of the essential features of a good schoolhouse among the primary districts, is painfully evident. It seems to be thought that the only thing necessary, is to get room sufficient in which to seat all the pupils, and a small space for a teacher's stand, and a stove. If anything more is attempted, it is to give a fine architectural form and ornamentation to the exterior. The skillful adaptation of the rooms to the school work, the arrangement of windows to throw the light in proper quantity and direction, the provision of space and conveniences for class work, the arrangements of desks and doors to facilitate the orderly movement and government of the school, the proper disposition of warming and ventilating flues, chimneys, etc., the provision and best arrangement of needful ante-rooms, closets, etc., and the supply of proper grounds and outhouses—all these are points scarcely taken into account, vital as they are to the best interests of the school.

It is a question of greatest importance. How can the erection of imperfect and inconvenient schoolhouses be hereafter prevented? Yearly, large amounts are expended for new buildings, and still larger sums must yet be spent before all the districts can be supplied. The amount paid for building and repairing schoolhouses in 1861 was \$122,715.22. In 1862, it was *one hundred and twelve thousand eight hundred and seventy-seven*

dollars and ninety-six cents. It is probable that the amounts expended for schoolhouses may be diminished somewhat during the war, but it will be only to make necessary a much larger expenditure a year or two later.

On serious reflection I can see no way of securing a proper appropriation of these large amounts, and the erection of proper schoolhouses, but by furnishing to the several townships and districts of the State a sufficient number of good and approved plans of schoolhouses, of various sizes and grades, with full explanations and specifications; and then, by law, making it incumbent upon each district board or building committee to present their plans to the township inspectors, or some competent tribunal before entering upon the work of construction. If a small manual of school architecture, embracing plans suited to the various classes of public schools known in our system, were authorized to be prepared, and a copy of it were deposited with each township clerk, it would prove of vast benefit. The expense of such a volume would be saved to the State in a single year, in the greater economy and value of the schoolhouses erected, and a new impulse would be given to education itself, by the wide dissemination of the correct views which such a volume would contain. How many an old and worthless schoolhouse would it shame out of existence, and to how many a new one, prompted by its influence, would it give a more convenient and healthful plan?

The importance of making some adequate provision for this department of our school enterprise, must be obvious to every candid mind, when it reflects that the State is annually expending for school buildings over one hundred thousand dollars. The people themselves would doubtless welcome a volume such as is here described, as an acceptable aid in the proper expenditure of their building funds.

C

Plans for a desirable district school—Superintendent Hosford.

It may be in place just here, to make a few suggestions in regard to building district schoolhouses. Of late years much has been written upon the importance of thorough ventilation. Too much cannot be said upon the subject; its importance cannot be overestimated. Special attention is given in some places, to ventilating schoolrooms. All of the best class of schoolhouses are designed to be thoroughly furnished with ventilating tubes. But in the cheaper buildings, especially in district schoolhouses, no such arrangement has been made. If any care has been taken in ventilating any of this class of buildings, it is only in those that form very rare exceptions. In the volume of revised School Laws may be found the elevations and ground plans of various school edifices; among them the ground plan and elevation of a district school-house. As comparatively few may have access to the volume, and as some mistakes were made in the description of the house then given, it is thought best to insert it here, and give some of the reasons for using this plan in building. The design is to have all the windows in the schoolroom in the sides of the house; this prevents the light from shining directly into the eyes of either teacher or pupils. The ground plan shows the internal arrangement of the house. A is the fire-place. The chimney is designed to come to the floor, and a small fireplace is to be built in it; this is to be closed by a movable register. There are often days not cold enough to require a fire in the stove, a fire there would render the room uncomfortable, and yet it is damp and chilly, raining it may be, and the children come with damp if not wet feet. At such times it would be a very great convenience to have such a place, in which a little fire could be kindled as this fireplace would furnish. All that would be necessary would be to remove the register and build the fire. A small hearth should be laid to prevent the fire from getting upon the floor. B is the platform placed a little one side of the center, to allow

the door to open from the entrance hall, as well as to remove the teacher from the immediate vicinity of the stove. C is the stove; it should be a large box stove with a drum on the top, with opening through the center. A tin or sheet-iron tube passing through the wall of the house opens into the central opening of the drum, and this tube should be furnished with a damper to regulate the flow of air from the outside. The smoke-pipe passes from the stove to the center of the room, then along the center to the chimney. With this arrangement a constant flow of air is secured from the outside, which is warmed in passing through the drum, at the same time there is a current of cold impure air passing through the register and rising through the chimney. The schoolroom will thus be supplied with pure warm air, and relieved of the cold impure air from the floor. It is believed that this simple arrangement will supply a want which has never been met in district schoolhouses of the country.

The additional expense is but trifling, and this will be far more than compensated by the diminished expense in heating the schoolroom, while the advantages to the health of the pupils will be beyond estimate. The remaining parts of the house are easily described. F is a closet for the use of the teacher. It should be made large enough to hold all maps and other apparatus belonging to the school. D and E are wardrobes in which hooks or boxes can be put up for the use of the pupils. It is much better to have the clothes hung in these protected wardrobes, than to have them in a common entrance hall, or to have them taken into the schoolroom.

The pupils are expected to pass through these wardrobes in going into the schoolroom—the boys passing through one and the girls the other—while the teacher and visitors pass at once from the entrance way to the schoolroom, the teacher, of course, using the closet back of the platform as a wardrobe. Plank walks should be placed in front of the schoolhouse, and from the gate to the door, and also from the door to the woodshed and outhouses. The outhouses should always be separate buildings, and

located some distance from each other. A long piece of heavy strap iron should be nailed to either side of the walk to be used as a scraper, and a large, stout foot mat should be placed in the entrance hall. A little attention to some of these would aid materially in keeping the schoolroom clean, wholesome and attractive.

D

School Architecture: Superintendent Pattengill.

This century shows gratifying progress in nearly everything, save school house architecture. Can't we move forward a step or two in this direction?

With this in view we are, through the kindness and study of a wide-awake young architect, Earl H. Mead, of Lansing, able to give sketches of several school buildings that may be built at but little more expense than the regulation, rectangular, non-ventilated, inconvenient rural school houses of today.

In planning these buildings the architect has had in mind what every board should insist upon, viz.: good lighting and good ventilation. Besides these two great essentials there are many little accessories that make no extra expense, but render the building a thousand fold more convenient and comfortable. It is usually best to secure details of the plans from the architect, for the guidance of the builder, and to insure satisfaction. Architects, however, frequently overlook many things which to the teachers are of vital importance. We give herewith some miscellaneous suggestions which should be carefully considered by those about to build schoolhouses.

1. The window lighting surface should equal one-fifth of the floor surface.
2. No pupil should sit further from the window than two and one-half times the distance from the floor to the top of the window.

3. The window should extend to the ceiling only leaving enough room for the casing between the opening and the ceiling.

4. The windows should be grouped.

5. Light is better from both sides than from one side and the back. The light at the back, unless high, will cast the pupil's shadow on his work.

6. There should be no windows for pupils to face.

7. Light from one side should be from the left so as not to throw the shadow of the pupil's hand upon his work.

8. The windows should be provided with green shades, yellow is not as good for the eyes.

9. The blackboards should not have a glossy surface.

10. If windows are grouped as they should be and as they are in the accompanying sketches, *no blackboards come between windows* to try the eyes of the pupils.

HEATING AND VENTILATING

1. A wood furnace is the cheapest and best means of heating small school houses where wood is abundant. The furnace heats and ventilates and will burn long wood, knots, branches, etc., that cannot be used in a stove.

2. A jacketed stove is the next best heater and ventilator. A round, tall stove should be encased by a sheet-iron jacket, the jacket being placed four or six inches from the stove. The jacket should reach within two inches of the floor, and extend to top of stove. Air conductors 6x12 inches should lead from the wall on two opposite sides of the schoolhouse under the floor, and open into a register immediately under the stove. This furnishes fresh air. Dampers can be placed in these ducts to regulate the amount of fresh air. A good stove and jacket can be bought for \$25 to \$40.

3. The chimney should extend to the ground, and contain a flue two feet square, with either a brick partition dividing it into two parts, or an eight-inch chimney tile for smoke flue. This

smoke flue warms the shaft, creates a current upward, and thus the impure air of the room may be drawn off.

4. Flues built into walls without provision for warming them are merely monuments to fools.

5. Place a large register in the room at base of chimney, and also one in the chimney near the ceiling. Let both be provided with valves with which to close them when necessary.

6. Place a ventilator in ceiling of room near the center, opening into the attic.

7. Hang windows with cords and weights if possible, or at least make them easy of movement, and supplied with easy catches at lifts of short intervals. Place a 5-inch board under lower sash of window, just as long as window is wide. This will create a space between upper and lower sash, through which the air can come in without direct draft on pupils.

8. Occasionally open doors and windows, and let the air change while pupils are marching or exercising.

MISCELLANEOUS

1. Wardrobes for country schools are better made of wainscoting six or eight feet high, at both ends of entrance door, in the schoolroom. Those old entries are great breeders of disorder.

2. The girls and boys should have separate wardrobes.

3. *The teacher's desk should be in the opposite end of the room from the entrance.*

4. The end of the room opposite the entrance should have no windows.

5. The blackboard should extend across the end of the room back of the teacher's desk and down each side to the windows. It will do no harm to run the blackboard the length of both sides as well as one end.

6. If necessary stand over the builder with a club to make him put the blackboards low enough for the little people. The

side boards should be within two feet of the floor and made four feet wide. The end board should be six feet wide.

7. The floor should be of narrow and well seasoned maple. Don't put in a soft wood floor.

8. Provide a neat woodbox if no fuel room is given.

9. Provide at least one extra chair for stray visitors.

10. There should be an average of 16 square feet of floor space to each pupil. A little increase in the dimensions of the building does not add materially to the expense, but adds much to health and comfort of pupils.

E

The organization of union schools.

In the following tabulation the numbers enclosed in parentheses indicates the years assigned to that particular division. As these data were not asked for by the superintendent it is only in chance instances that they were given in the reports.

Adrian

| | | | | |
|------|---------------|---------------|-------------|----------|
| 1858 | Primary (5-6) | Grammar (3) | High (3) | |
| 1858 | Primary | Secondary | Grammar | High |
| 1862 | Primary (3) | Secondary (3) | Grammar (?) | High (4) |
| 1873 | Primary | Secondary | Grammar | High |
| 1876 | Primary | | Grammar | High |

Allegan

1862 Two departments; common school course.

Ann Arbor

| | | | |
|------|-------------|------------------|----------|
| 1858 | Primary | Intermediate | High (3) |
| 1859 | Primary (6) | Intermediate (3) | High (3) |
| 1876 | Primary | Grammar | High |

Battle Creek

| | | | |
|------|-------------|------------------|----------|
| 1859 | Primary (4) | Intermediate (4) | High (3) |
| 1873 | Primary (4) | Intermediate (3) | High (3) |
| 1876 | Primary (4) | Grammar (4) | High (4) |

Buchanan

| | | | | |
|------|---------|--------------|-------------------|--------------------|
| 1862 | Primary | Intermediate | Principal's Dept. | No course of study |
|------|---------|--------------|-------------------|--------------------|

Bay City

1859 Two departments; not graded.

Cassopolis

| | |
|------|---|
| 1858 | Three departments; common English course. |
| 1859 | Three departments; high school studies added. |

Centerville

| | | | | | |
|------|---------|--------|--------------------------|--|--|
| 1862 | Primary | Higher | Common English branches. | | |
|------|---------|--------|--------------------------|--|--|

Coldwater

| | | | | | |
|------|-------------|--------------|----------|------|--|
| 1858 | Primary | Intermediate | Academic | | |
| 1859 | Primary | Intermediate | Higher | | |
| 1862 | Primary (3) | Grammar (3) | High (3) | | |
| 1876 | Primary | Intermediate | Grammar | High | |

Detroit

| | | | | | |
|------|----------------------------|-------------|----------|--|--|
| 1858 | Four grades or departments | | | | |
| 1876 | Primary (4) | Grammar (4) | High (4) | | |

Dexter

| | | | | | |
|------|-------------------|--------------|--------|--|--|
| 1858 | Three departments | | | | |
| 1859 | Primary | Intermediate | Higher | | |

Gowagiac

| | | | | | |
|------|-------------------|--------------------|-------------|------------|---------|
| 1858 | First Primary (2) | Second Primary (2) | Grammar (2) | High (3) | |
| 1859 | Three departments | | | | |
| 1862 | 2nd Primary | 1st Primary | 2nd Inter. | 1st Inter. | Grammar |

Eaton Rapids

| | | | | | |
|------|---------|--------------|--------|--|--|
| 1859 | Primary | Intermediate | Higher | | |
| 1862 | Primary | Intermediate | Higher | | |

Flint

| | | | | | |
|------|-------------|--------------|--------------|---------|--|
| 1858 | Primary | Intermediate | Higher | | |
| 1859 | 1st Primary | 2nd Primary | Intermediate | Higher* | |
| 1876 | Primary (4) | Grammar (4) | High (4) | | |

*Not yet determined at what age pupils are ready to begin higher subjects.

Grand Rapids

| | | | | | |
|------|-------------|------------------|-------------|------------|--|
| 1858 | Primary | Intermediate | Higher | | |
| 1862 | Primary (2) | Intermediate (2) | Grammar (2) | High (3-5) | |
| 1873 | Primary | Intermediate | Grammar | High (3) | |
| 1876 | Primary (4) | Grammar (4) | | High (4) | |

Jackson

| | | | | | |
|------|-------------|---------------|-------------|----------|--|
| 1862 | Primary (3) | Secondary (3) | Grammar (3) | High (3) | |
|------|-------------|---------------|-------------|----------|--|

Jonesville

| | | | | | |
|------|---------|-----------|---------|---------|--|
| 1858 | Primary | Secondary | Higher* | | |
| 1859 | Primary | Secondary | Grammar | Higher* | |

*No course of study as yet.

Kalamazoo

| | | | | | |
|------|---------|--------------|---------|------|--|
| 1859 | Primary | Intermediate | Grammar | High | |
| 1862 | Primary | Intermediate | Junior | High | |

Lansing

| | | | | | |
|------|-------------|------------------|-------------|----------|--|
| 1859 | Primary | Intermediate | High | | |
| 1862 | Primary (2) | Intermediate (3) | Grammar (2) | High (3) | |

Marshall

| | | | | | |
|------|-------------|------------------|-------------|----------|--|
| 1862 | Primary (3) | Intermediate (3) | Grammar (3) | High (4) | |
|------|-------------|------------------|-------------|----------|--|

Monroe

| | | | | | |
|------|-------------|------------|----------------|------|--|
| 1859 | Primary | Secondary | Grammar | High | |
| 1862 | Primary (3) | Junior (6) | Academical (5) | | |

Niles

| | | | | | |
|------|-----------------|-----------------|------------|-------------|----------|
| 1858 | Primary | Junior | Senior | Academic* | |
| 1859 | 1st Primary (2) | 2nd Primary (2) | Inter. (3) | Grammar (2) | High † |
| 1862 | 1st Primary (3) | 2nd Primary (2) | Inter. (2) | Grammar (2) | High (4) |
| 1876 | Primary | Grammar | High | | |

*Course of study not established.

†Course of study not perfected in the high school.

Plymouth

1859 Three departments

Pontiac

| | | | | | |
|------|-------------|---------------|------------------|-------------|----------|
| 1873 | Primary (2) | Secondary (2) | Intermediate (2) | Grammar (3) | High (4) |
| 1876 | Primary | Grammar | High | | |

Port Huron

| | | | | | |
|------|-------------------|-----------|--------------|---------|------|
| 1858 | Three departments | | | | |
| 1876 | Primary | Secondary | Intermediate | Grammar | High |

Saginaw East

1859 Three grades. No course of study adopted for each grade.

1862 Primary Second Third with limits of each defined as a starting point from which in time a graded system might be built up.

1876 Primary Grammar High States that all Michigan schools have agreed to use "Grammar Department" as the term including fifth to eighth grades inclusive.

St. Clair

| | | | | | |
|------|---------|-----------|--------------|---------|--------|
| 1859 | Primary | Secondary | Intermediate | Higher* | |
| 1862 | Primary | Secondary | Intermediate | Grammar | Higher |

*Studies in each not yet determined.

Vassar

| | | | | |
|------|---------|--------------|--------|------------------------|
| 1862 | Primary | Intermediate | Higher | School not yet graded. |
|------|---------|--------------|--------|------------------------|

Ypsilanti

| | | | | |
|------|-------------|---------------|-------------|----------------|
| 1868 | Primary (3) | Secondary (3) | Grammar (3) | Academical (3) |
|------|-------------|---------------|-------------|----------------|

F

Course of study for graded schools, 1876.

COURSE OF STUDY
High School

| Year | Term | Mathematics | Language | Science |
|--------|------|-------------------|------------------|---------------------------|
| First | 1 | Algebra | Composition | Physiology |
| | 2 | " | Grammar | Zoology |
| | 3 | " | Analysis | Botany |
| Second | 1 | Arithmetic | General History | Botany and Physical Geog. |
| | 2 | " | " " | Botany and Physical Geog. |
| | 3 | Bookkeeping | " " | Science of Government |
| Third | 1 | Geometry | French or German | Nat'l Philosophy |
| | 2 | " | " " | " |
| | 3 | " | " " | Rhetoric |
| Fourth | 1 | Algebra | French or German | Rhetoric |
| | 2 | " | " " | Eng. Literature |
| | 3 | Geometry, Drawing | " " | " " |

Primary and Grammar School

| Grade | Reading | Mathematics | Geography and History | Language |
|---------|-----------------------------|---|------------------------------------|-------------------------|
| First | Primer and First Reader | Writing to 50. Combinations to 10 | | Oral |
| Second | Second Reader | Writing to 100 | Geography, Oral, City | Oral |
| Third | Third Reader or Equivalent | Writing to 1000 Mul. and Division Tables Slate practice in the Four Fund. Rules | Oral, County and State | Oral |
| Fourth | Third Reader or Equivalent | Written Arithmetic through Subtraction, Multiplication and Division | Written Elementary Geography | Oral |
| Fifth | Fourth Reader or Equivalent | Common and Decimal Fractions | Elementary, 5 mo. Higher, 5 mo. | Oral Grammar |
| Sixth | Fourth Reader or Equivalent | Fractions reviewed, U. S. Money and Compound Numbers | Higher Geography | Elementary Grammar |
| Seventh | Fifth Reader or Equivalent | Percentage | Higher Geography | Elementary Grammar |
| Eighth | Fifth Reader or Equivalent | Finish and Review | U. S. History | Grammar and Composition |

G

School libraries: Superintendent Gregory.

It is to be hoped that, under the new order, the School libraries of the State will prove more efficient and useful than they have heretofore been. They are necessary adjuncts of the educational system, and form a most important part of those agencies by which the mental growth and intelligence of the people are to be promoted. In theory the district library is right, as it brings the

books within easy reach of all classes, old and young, and places them in the custody of those who will be most likely to care for their preservation. Our School system must ever fail to produce its full and best fruits, if the knowledge gained by the pupils in their school days, is not enlarged and ripened by the continued acquisitions of later years. It will be of but slight avail that they learn to read, if no taste for reading is acquired. If the learning of the great masses of our people is to stop short with the mere elements of knowledge communicated in the Common Schools, then must we fail ever to become an educated people, and when the fleeting character of these School acquirements is considered, the question may be gravely asked whether our Schools, after all, will reward any greater outlay of labor and expense than they now receive. It is evident that the chief value of our Schools is to be estimated, not from what they cause the pupil to know as a pupil, but what they make him capable of learning in manhood; but unless he goes on, in manhood, to use this power of learning, the richest value of his education is lost.

The township library is ordinarily too remote from the great mass of the children. Those living in the remote districts can scarcely be expected to go three or four, and often five or six miles to get books. . . . And if the township library be distributed in parcels, quarterly, as under the old system, the advantages claimed for a large collection of books in the township library, are mostly sacrificed: we have simple district libraries with the disadvantages that they are imperfect in character, since no large library, without duplicates, can be so divided as to make several good small libraries; they are temporary in tenure, the books not remaining to be read throughout the district, and re-read till known and mastered; and the district feeling only a divided and partial ownership in the books, they are more liable to be lost and destroyed.

It is not expected that any system will work well without diligence and steady efforts, on the part of those who have the management of it. No machinery can be made so perfect that it will

run alone, without a constant application of power to impel, and without a constant supervision to control it.

The inspiring influence of libraries upon teachers and Schools has often been remarked by the leading Educationists of the older States. The true teacher must be a perpetual learner, and the library at hand, in the School house it may be, is a continuous Normal School to him. He daily replenishes those stores of knowledge from which he must draw each day for the instruction of his pupils. I can scarcely conceive of any other circumstance that would be so likely to elevate the character of the teaching in our Common Schools, as the planting in each district School house a library of well selected books.

The perfection and permanence of our library system demands that a fixed and sufficient sum shall be appropriated annually to the purchase of books. This will doubtless claim and receive the attention of the legislature at its next session. Could one-fifth of the proceeds of the two mill tax be set apart for a library fund, it would afford about \$30,000 annually for the purchase of books. Could there be created a library fund, which should be distributed to such districts on condition of their raising an amount equal to that which they receive, as the New York library fund was distributed, and is the policy under the somewhat celebrated library system now in operation in Upper Canada, the districts would be stimulated to a higher interest in the libraries, and a much more liberal support would be obtained for them.

H

Survey of statutes and constitutional provisions with respect to sectarian teaching, control, and support.

The following table offers a general survey of the development of this particular phase of educational history. Column (1) gives the date of constitutional provisions forbidding public support of sectarian schools, and religious instruction and tests in

public schools; column (2) the dates of statutes forbidding the appropriation of public funds for non-public schools; column (3) the date of statutes forbidding sectarian teaching in the public schools; column (4) the date of statutes forbidding the use of religious tests for teachers and pupils; column (5) the date of statutes forbidding the use of sectarian texts; column (6) the date of statutes making appropriations from public funds for the support of sectarian institutions for the most part of a charitable purpose; column (7) the date of colonial statutes specifying ecclesiastical control over some one or more phases of education:

| | (1) | (2) | (3) | (4) | (5) | (6) | (7) |
|-------------------------|------------|------|------|------|------|------|--------------------|
| Alabama | 1875, 1901 | 1854 | 1852 | 1852 | 1903 | | |
| Arizona | 1912 | 1883 | 1879 | 1901 | 1879 | | |
| Arkansas | 1868 | | | | 1873 | | |
| California | 1879 | | 1855 | | 1855 | 1870 | |
| Colorado | 1876 | | | | 1883 | | |
| Connecticut | 1818 | | | | | | 1659, 1676 |
| Delaware | 1897 | | | | | | |
| Florida | 1885 | | | | | | |
| Georgia | 1868, 1877 | | | | | | |
| Idaho | 1890 | | 1907 | 1903 | 1907 | | |
| Illinois | 1870 | 1872 | 1836 | 1835 | | | |
| Indiana | 1851 | | 1853 | 1853 | 1889 | 1855 | |
| Iowa | 1857 | 1872 | | 1842 | 1876 | | |
| Kansas | 1859 | | 1876 | | 1897 | | |
| Kentucky | 1850, 1891 | | 1893 | 1903 | 1893 | | |
| Louisiana | 1864, 1879 | 1894 | 1855 | 1855 | | | |
| Massachusetts | 1855 | | | | 1827 | | 1641, 1654 1701 |
| Michigan | 1835, 1850 | | | 1837 | | | |
| Minnesota | 1877 | | 1907 | 1907 | | | |
| Mississippi | 1868, 1890 | | | | 1892 | 1878 | |
| Missouri | 1875 | | 1835 | 1825 | | | |
| Montana | 1889 | | 1872 | 1893 | 1872 | | |
| Nebraska | 1866 | | 1875 | 1857 | | | |

| | (1) | (2) | (3) | (4) | (5) | (6) | (7) |
|-------------------|------------|------|------|------|------|------------|------------|
| Nevada..... | 1864 | 1885 | 1885 | | 1885 | | |
| New Hampshire.. | 1792, 1877 | | | | 1842 | | |
| New Jersey..... | 1844, 1875 | 1881 | | 1881 | | 1846 | 1758, 1770 |
| New Mexico..... | 1910 | | 1897 | | | 1897 | |
| New York..... | 1894 | 1871 | 1842 | 1784 | 1844 | 1851, 1871 | 1686, 1754 |
| North Carolina... | 1876 | | | | 1873 | | 1766 |
| North Dakota.... | 1889 | | 1899 | 1883 | 1891 | | |
| Ohio..... | 1851 | | | | | | |
| Oklahoma..... | 1907 | | 1890 | 1890 | 1908 | | |
| Oregon..... | 1857 | | | 1876 | | | |
| Pennsylvania.... | 1874 | | | | | 1837, 1849 | 1708 |
| Rhode Island.... | 1843 | | | | | | 1764 |
| So. Carolina..... | 1868, 1894 | | 1871 | 1873 | 1870 | | 1710 |
| So. Dakota..... | 1889 | | 1903 | 1903 | | | |
| Tennessee..... | 1870 | | | | 1899 | | |
| Texas..... | 1845, 1876 | 1884 | 1870 | 1837 | | 1874 | |
| Utah..... | 1895 | | 1892 | | | | |
| Virginia..... | 1902 | | 1839 | 1839 | 1847 | | 1752, 1756 |
| Washington..... | 1889 | 1890 | 1883 | 1890 | 1883 | | |
| West Virginia.... | 1872 | | | | | | |
| Wisconsin..... | 1848 | | 1898 | 1857 | 1883 | | |
| Wyoming..... | 1889 | | 1886 | 1886 | | | |

I

Course of study for primary schools, 1877.

| Grade | Reading | Arithmetic | Geography and History | Language |
|---------|-------------------------|---|--|----------------------------|
| First | Primer and First Reader | Writing Nos. to 50 Combinations to 10 | | Oral |
| Second | Second Reader | Writing Nos. to 100 Combinations to 20 | Geography, oral of the city | Oral |
| Third | Third Reader | Writing to 1000 Fundamental Rules and Tables | Oral, of county and state | Oral |
| Fourth | or Equivalent | Written Arithmetic through Fundamental Rules | Written Elementary Geography | Oral |
| Fifth | Fourth Reader | Common and Decimal Fractions | Elementary, half year Higher, half year | Oral Grammar |
| Sixth | or Equivalent | Reviews and U. S. Money and Compound Numbers | Higher Geography | Elementary Grammar |
| Seventh | Fifth Reader | Percentage | Higher Geography | Elementary Grammar |
| Eighth | or Equivalent | Finish and Review | U. S. History | Grammar and Composition |

Penmanship, spelling, music, drawing, and general oral instruction recommended throughout the course.

J

Course of study for primary schools, 1881.

FIRST SECTION

Comprising First and Second Classes.

Reading.—First two books of series. Sight readings. Memorizing.

Spelling.—Oral and written. Words from reading lessons and in common use.

Writing.—On slate and board in connection with reading and spelling.

Numbers.—Reading numbers to 1,000. Simple operations in the fundamental processes, written and oral. Roman notation.

Miscellaneous.—Oral lessons daily. Home geography,—place, direction, the township and county, the globe, language,—correct speech, correct forms, capitals, punctuation, etc.

SECOND SECTION

Comprising Third and Fourth Classes.

Reading.—Third and fourth books of the series. Select readings and recitations.

Spelling.—Oral and written. Words from reading lessons and from spelling books.

Writing.—Forms of letters. Copy books. Dictation,—words and sentences.

Arithmetic.—First book, completed. Fundamental processes, fractions, decimals, and compound numbers reviewed in advanced text book.

Geography.—First book of series completed. Studies of maps and globes. Map drawing.

Language.—Systematic oral lessons. Kinds of sentences. Parts of sentences. Common errors corrected. Written work.

Miscellaneous.—Oral lessons daily. History,—anecdotes of familiar characters and events. Physiology,—health. Other subjects.

THIRD SECTION

Comprising the Fifth Class.

Reading.—Fifth book of the series. Select readings. Recitations.

Spelling.—Advanced spelling book.

Writing.—Advanced copy books.

Arithmetic.—Advanced text book completed. Business forms and methods.

Geography.—Second book completed. Map drawing. Commercial geography.

U. S. History.—Oral or text books,—with special attention to civil government of the United States and of Michigan.

Grammar.—Text book completed. Letter writing. Composition. Paraphrasing.

K

TABULAR VIEW OF COURSE OF STUDY FOR DISTRICT SCHOOLS, 1883

| Grade | Reading | Spelling | Writing | Arithmetic | Language | Geography |
|---------------------|--------------------------------|---|---------------------------------|--|--|---|
| I Two years | First and Second Readers | Oral and Written; Words from Reading Lessons | On Slates, the Words Learned | Decimal Notation to 1,000; Roman Notation to 50; Multiplication Table to 6's; Four Fundamental Operations, largest No. being 1,000. | Telling and Asking Sentences; Pictures— Talks about; Copying and making Sentences | Oral Lessons on Globe; Home Geography, oral and sketched |
| II Two years | Third Reader | Oral and Written; Words from Reading Lessons | Copy Books of some series | Decimal Notation to 1,000,000; Roman Notation to 100; Multiplication Table completed; Fundamental Operations in decimal notation to millions | Continue former Exercises; Common Errors corrected; Writing from Dictation; Composing Sentences containing given words | Co. and State Map; First Book of Series begun; Oral Exercises with Globe; Map Sketching |
| III Two years | Fourth Reader | Oral and Written; Words from Reading Lessons and Spelling Book | Copy Books of some series | Factoring Numbers; Common and Decimal Fractions; Compound Numbers—the tables in commonest use | Imaginary Stories; Kinds of Words and Sentences; Subject and Predicate; Letter Writing | Use of Globe Continued; First Book Completed; Second Book of Series; Map Drawing |
| IV Two years | Fifth Reader | Written Mainly; Words from Reading Lessons and Spelling Book | Copy Books of some series | Compound Numbers completed; Business Forms; Ratio and Proportion; Percentage; Square and Cube Root | Word Studies; Composition and Letter Writing; Text-books on Grammar | Second Book completed; U. S. History and Civil Government |

I.

COURSE OF STUDY FOR GRADED SCHOOLS, 1890

| TEXT-BOOKS | | TABULAR VIEW OF THE COURSE OF STUDY | | | | | | | | | | | |
|----------------------------|--------|-------------------------------------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|
| | | The Grades of the Course | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | | First | | Second | | Third | | Fourth | | Fifth | | Sixth | |
| Terms.... | Fall | Winter | Spring | Fall | Winter | Fall | Winter | Fall | Winter | Fall | Winter | Fall | Winter |
| | Spring | Summer | Summer | Summer | Summer | Summer | Summer | Summer | Summer | Summer | Summer | Summer | Summer |
| First Reader..... | 55 | 90 | 120 | 144 | 45 | 93 | 150 | 190 | 225 | 286 | 35 | 45 | 55 |
| Second Reader..... | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Third Reader..... | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Fourth Reader..... | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Spelling Book..... | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Numbers (oral)..... | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Arithmetic (1st book)..... | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Arithmetic (2nd book)..... | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Geography (1st book)..... | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Geography (2nd book)..... | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Language (oral)..... | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Grammar..... | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| U. S. History..... | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Civil Government..... | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Physiology..... | | | | | | | | | | | | | |

The numbers in the columns indicate the pages of the book to which classes go each term. The pages, as here represented, cannot be used, because—to avoid advertising any particular publishing house—no special books are mentioned. Each secretary should name, under the heading "Text-books," the books in use in his county, and the figures in the columns should correspond to them. When a page has been arranged and printed, it may be pasted over this.

M

Course of study and the principles underlying its formulation, 1897.

METHODS

The term *method* is a much-abused word. The true teacher 'sees the end from the beginning' and the pathway to it, then plans definite means to reach this end along the line of the least resistance. His every act has a purpose, clear and intelligent, directed toward this end. These acts, in the aggregate, constitute his *method*.

Disconnected devices, no matter how helpful, do not constitute a method. It is a systematic application of connected plans that succeeds, whether in school, business, or professional life.

While this Manual is not a book of methods, some effort has been made to give methods along a few lines. In general these are designed to be suggestive. The primary work in reading, numbers, language, and geography, however, is more than suggestive and well worth a trial.

In every successful school, closely allied to method in teaching is method in *study*. The greatest teachers are those who not only arouse the minds of their pupils and create a thirst for knowledge, but also teach them how to search, investigate, and know. Therefore the teacher should know *how* his pupils study, correct their faults, and suggest methods of concentrating the mind and intensifying mental concepts.

The steps in study are:

- (1) To select the central points.
- (2) To illuminate them with the imagination.
- (3) To associate them with past knowledge.
- (4) To classify with each central point its system of lesser points that depend upon and reflect its truth.
- (5) To state them in exact language.

PLAN OF THE COURSE OF STUDY

As individuals differ widely in character, ability, and attainment, it cannot be expected that any system of studies can be arranged suited to all. It is, however, true that every human intellect feels its way out from the unknown by essentially the same mental processes, and no matter what the method, when a truth dawns upon the human mind it always enters the windows of the soul from the same side and by the same pathway. It is also a fact that no truth can be taught in its fulness until the intellect has reached the proper development for its reception; or, briefly stated, there is a natural and correlated order of mind growth.

A course of study must recognize this truth, otherwise it will be a hindrance rather than a help. Furthermore, while the correlation of subjects and degrees of mental acumen should be kept constantly in mind, no teacher is expected to fit each and every pupil into an inflexible grade. The grades are made for the pupil, not the pupil for the grades. The just teacher places the pupil in the classes for which he is best adapted, even though he may by this means be found in more than *one* grade.

It may be proper to say here a few words concerning 'grades'. The word as used herein, covers the average school period of nine consecutive months. But as long as there exists such a diversity among school districts in length of school years, it will be impossible to have a *grade* mean a *year of work*. The word, therefore, should signify a certain period of school life, and the subjects indicated in that period be taught together, whether it takes one or two school years.

The course of study itself:

OUTLINE OF THE COURSE

*Primary Division**First Year*

Reading
Spelling
Writing
Language
Numbers
Geography
Drawing
Nature Study

Second Year

Reading
Spelling
Writing
Language
Numbers
Physiology
Geography
Drawing
Nature Study

*Intermediate Division**Third Year*

Reading
Spelling
Writing
Language
Numbers
Physiology
Geography
Drawing
Nature Study

Fourth Year

Reading
Spelling
Writing
Language
Arithmetic
Physiology
Geography
Nature Study and Science

Fifth Year

Reading
Spelling
Penmanship
Language
Arithmetic
Physiology and Hygiene
Drawing
Nature Study and Science

Sixth Year

Reading
Spelling
Penmanship
Language
Arithmetic
Geography
State History and Gov't.
Physiology and Hygiene
Drawing
Nature Study and Science

*Advanced Division**Seventh Year*

Reading
Spelling
Penmanship
Grammar
Arithmetic
Geography
Physiology and Hygiene
History
Civil Government
Drawing

Eighth Year

Reading
Orthography
Penmanship
Grammar
Arithmetic
History
Civil Government
Bookkeeping

Ninth Grade

Fall Term:

Review with eighth grade classes.
Algebra and physical geography.

Winter Term:

Review with eighth grade.
Algebra and physical geography or bookkeeping.

Spring Term:

Botany, algebra, and physical geography or bookkeeping.

Tenth Grade

Fall Term:

Physics, general history, and rhetoric.

Winter Term:

Physics, general history, and rhetoric, with general reviews preparatory to teachers' examination

Spring Term:

Study of English classics and reviews with special reference to composition.

N

COURSE OF STUDY

*First Grade**1916*

Reading
Spelling
Sense Training
Writing
Oral Language

1922

Reading
Word Study
Numbers
Writing
Language
Hygiene
Nature Study
History Stories

Second Grade

Reading
Spelling
Writing
Oral Arithmetic
Oral Language

Reading
Word Study
Writing
Numbers
Language
Hygiene
Nature Study
History Stories

Third Grade

Reading
Spelling
Writing
Oral Arithmetic
Oral Geography
Oral Language

Reading
Word Study
Writing
Arithmetic
Language
Citizenship
Hygiene
Nature Study
History Stories
Geography

Fourth Grade

Reading
Spelling
Writing
Oral Arithmetic
Oral Language
Geography

Reading
Word Study
Writing
Arithmetic
Language
Citizenship
Hygiene
Nature Study
History Stories
Geography

Fifth Grade

Reading
Spelling
Writing
Language
Arithmetic
Geography

English
Reading
Language
Hygiene
Citizenship
History Stories
Word Study
Science
Geography
Arithmetic
Writing

APPENDICES

369

| | | |
|------------------------|---------------|--|
| 1916 | Sixth Grade | 1922 |
| Reading | | English |
| Spelling | | Reading |
| Writing | | History |
| Language | | Language |
| Arithmetic | | Citizenship |
| Geography | | Word Study |
| Hygiene | | Science |
| | | Geography |
| | | Hygiene |
| | | Arithmetic |
| | | Writing |
| | Seventh Grade | |
| Reading | | English |
| Spelling | | Reading |
| Writing | | Composition |
| Grammar | | Grammar |
| Arithmetic | | Word Study |
| Geography | | Science |
| Physiology and Hygiene | | Geography |
| History | | Physiology and Hygiene |
| | | Arithmetic |
| | | History and Citizenship |
| | | Writing |
| | Eighth Grade | |
| Reading | | English |
| Spelling | | Classics |
| Grammar | | Composition |
| Arithmetic | | Grammar |
| History | | Word Study |
| Civil Government | | Science |
| Elementary Agriculture | | Agriculture |
| | | Arithmetic |
| | | History |
| | | Civics |
| | | Writing |
| | Ninth Grade | |
| English | | English |
| Algebra | | Algebra |
| Ancient History | | European History or Community |
| Botany | | Civics |
| | | General Science or Physiography |
| | Tenth Grade | |
| English | | English |
| Plane Geometry | | Plane Geometry |
| Modern History | | European History (Modern) |
| Physical Geography | | Botany or Physiography (1st Semester) |
| | | Botany or Agriculture (Second Semester)* |

*Note—School districts employing more than one teacher by permission of the Superintendent of Public Instruction may give instruction in the ninth and tenth grades.

O

Course of study for high schools, 1905.

SCHEDULE OF COURSE OF STUDY

| Subjects | IX | X | XI | XII |
|---------------------|---|---|--|---|
| English | Literature and composition | Literature and composition | Literature and composition Grammar | Literature and composition— rhetoric |
| Latin | Beginning | Caesar (4 books) | Cicero (6 orations) | Virgil (6 books) |
| Greek | | | Greek | Greek |
| German | German | German | German | German |
| French | French | French | French | French |
| History | Ancient | Mediaeval and Modern | Institutional | American and Civics |
| Mathematics | Algebra | Plane Geometry | Algebra Geometry | Review or Trigonometry |
| Science | Botany or Zoology | Physiography or Zoology | Physics | Chemistry |
| Commercial | Arithmetic Bookkeeping | Bookkeeping | Com. Geog. Com. Law | Stenography Typewriting |
| Music | Singing Study of principles | Singing Elementary Harmony | Singing Advanced Harmony | Voice Culture History of Music |
| Drawing | Drawing | Drawing | Drawing | Drawing |
| Domestic Art | Elementary Sewing Simple garments | Pattern Drafting and garment making | Room decoration Costumes Millinery | Pattern Drafting and advanced dressmaking |
| Domestic Science | Laundry and waitress work | Chemistry of foods Cooking | Foods and cooking | Invalid cooking Sanitation |
| Wood Work | Bench Work | Wood turning Pattern making | Wood carving Cabinet making | Advanced cabinet making |
| Iron Work | Forging | Forging Foundry work | Machine work | Shop work |

P

Course of study for small high schools, 1923.

| | English | Social Studies | Mathematics |
|---------------|----------|--|-----------------------------|
| Seventh Year | *English | *History and Citizenship. Geography | *Arithmetic |
| Eighth Year | *English | *History. Civics. Current Events | *Mathematics |
| Ninth Year | *English | Community Civics or European History (Ancient) | *Algebra |
| Tenth Year | *English | *European History (Mod. or World) | *Plane Geom. |
| Eleventh Year | *English | *American History | Solid Geom. Adv. Algebra |
| Twelfth Year | *English | *Economics. *Civics | |

| | Science | Foreign Languages | Vocational | Fine Arts |
|---------------|------------------------------------|---------------------------|-----------------------------------|---------------|
| Seventh Year | *Hygiene | | Home Economics Manual Training | Music and Art |
| Eighth Year | *General Science or Agriculture | | Home Economics Manual Training | Music and Art |
| Ninth Year | *Biology | | Home Economics Manual Training | Music and Art |
| Tenth Year | Geography or Agriculture | Latin I | Bookkeeping | |
| Eleventh Year | *Chemistry or *Physics | Latin I or Latin II | Commercial Law | |
| Twelfth Year | Physics or Chemistry | Latin II | Geography | |

*Subject required.

Suggestions for school inspectors—Superintendent Gregory.

The comments made by the visiting Inspectors, in the annual reports, show evidences in some instances, of close observation and a discriminating judgment; but in very many cases the sweeping censures, or unqualified encomiums, pronounced upon all the schools equally, excite the suspicion that the visits made were both very cursory and very useless, and that the visiting officer was but poorly fitted for the delicate and important work committed to him.

A wise and thorough inspection of the schools is absolutely essential to their safety and success. In no other way can they be assured against the presence of incompetent, or idle and unfaithful teachers, and guarded against the mistakes of inexperienced or careless ones. The visit of an intelligent Inspector, who fully comprehends his work, may be of incalculable value in correcting evils, encouraging good, suggesting improvements, and exciting both teacher and pupils to greater diligence, and higher aims. I have known a single visit of a skillful and intelligent officer to change the entire character of a school, introducing new and better methods in teaching, kindling an active zeal in learning, and turning an idle and listless school into a scene of the liveliest interest and activity.

It is difficult to suggest rules by which an inexperienced and incompetent visitor can make his visit of much value; and the thoroughly furnished Inspector scarcely needs such rules. But there are certain important points to which every visiting Inspector should give heed:

1st. He should look narrowly to the character and condition of the school-room. He may not be able to secure a repair of its broken walls or ruined floor, nor to get it properly ventilated and warmed; but he can sometimes procure a rearrangement of its seats to make them more convenient, and, at any rate, he can by a few kind but earnest words of advice, urge the teacher to keep it clean and in order, as a necessary condition of an orderly school.

2nd. Let him have a keen eye for the indications of good government—the order and system maintained by the teacher, and the prompt and quiet obedience of the pupils. In a well governed school, not only will there be a general quiet throughout the room, but the work of the school will go on with system and regularity. Each class will have its regular hour and will, at the signal, rise promptly, and move in order to the place of recitation. The exercises will not be broken in upon by the calls of pupils outside of the class, nor by the efforts of the teacher to repress mischief and restore order in the other parts of the room. The teacher will neither scold nor threaten, and the pupils will sit and work in a cheerful and easy quietude, as far from the constrained and awkward silence of fear, as it is from the lawless license and riot of ungoverned disorder. Reflecting that good government is the first and fundamental condition of a good school, the skillful visitor will wisely counsel with the teacher as to any faults he may have observed, and seek to aid him in the introduction of better rules, by the recommendation of some more systematic arrangement and order in the school work. The force of perfect system is mightier than the force of the rod in the government of a school.

3rd. The methods of teaching will receive the most earnest and careful attention of the wise visitor. There is a lazy and shiftless way of teaching, fallen into by many teachers, which consists in a mere unthinking reading of the questions in the book, in their order, to the member of the class taken in one invariable round, and patching out the mumbled and mutilated replies; and then, after assigning the next lesson, dismissing the class. Such an exercise is almost utterly useless. The aim of a good recitation is threefold: 1st, to ascertain that the class have thoroughly studied the lesson both in its form or language, and in its substance or thought; 2nd, to drill them by rapid and varied questionings to the facts, formulas and operations contained in it; and 3rd, to awaken their minds to the subject, and lead them to a thorough understanding of it. A good class

exercise will be clear, distinct, thorough, lively to eagerness, interesting and generally short to avoid flagging and weariness. More questions will be asked out of the book than in it, and will never be given to the pupils in the order in which they sit or stand. No replies will be accepted that are not clear and correct, and no hints to start with or patching at the close will be offered by the teacher. The pupil will be required to stand on his own knowledge of the lesson, and to exhibit independently just how much he knows of it.

To correct errors here, and to introduce new and happier methods, the experienced visitor will give his best efforts. His largest knowledge of schools and of teaching will be needful to enable him to detect the defects that exist, and to offer the remedies required.

4th. The moral condition of the school, as exhibited by the conduct and language of the pupils, on the playground as well as in the schoolroom, is another point demanding the careful attention of the inspector. If the pupils are quarrelsome, and profane, or excessively rude and vulgar in habits—if they are indolent, untidy, untruthful, or eye-servants, negligent of duties and disobedient to authority, then the school is indeed sadly defective, and full of deadly peril both to the character of the pupils and to the peace of society. The cure of these disorders is often difficult, and to be accomplished only by long and patient efforts; but the teacher who suffers such evils to exist, and does not labor earnestly, and by all proper methods, to eradicate them, is unfit for his place and should be speedily dismissed. The chief forces available for the moral education of a school are: 1st. A good government, which maintains and teaches good order and obedience to rightful authority and duty; 2nd. Neatness of rooms and of persons, inspiring self-respect and decency of habits; 3rd. A general politeness and courtesy of manners and address maintained between the teacher and pupils and among the pupils themselves, aiding to soften down the temper, and to promote kindly feelings; 4th. The reverent reading of the Bible

at the opening of school, accompanied by prayer, if the teacher chooses, to cast the influence of its high sanctions on the consciences of both teacher and pupils; 5th. The reading frequently to the school of stories of the virtuous and heroic deeds of noble men and women, to inspire like sentiments in the susceptible mind of childhood; 6th. The clear explanation to the school, and, as much as practicable by question, leading the children themselves to the discovery, of the nature and wrongfulness of each vice, and of the obligation and benefit of every virtue; 7th, and finally, the administration of proper penalties for the faults, and of proper approval for the right doing of the pupils themselves. Learning loses all its higher values when linked to vice, and the thoughtful visitor will count it his highest duty, both to the school and the State, to watch narrowly the moral influences that are at work in the schoolroom.

5th. The condition and use of apparatus, blackboards and maps, will also attract the attention of the visiting inspectors. The power of visible illustration is difficult to be overstated. The pupil of the eye is the only pupil never addressed in vain. The introduction of the blackboard has revolutionized modern teaching, and the teacher skilled in its use can scarcely fail as an instructor.

6th. Let the visitor also examine the daily roll or record of the school, both to ascertain its condition and its correctness in manner, and also to learn from it the degree of regularity in attendance. Often the young teacher can be aided, by a few suggestions, to better methods and greater accuracy in keeping the register.

7th. As the inspector is intrusted with the oversight of all the educational machinery of the districts, he should examine also into the condition and general usefulness of the district or township libraries. He should advise as to the selection of books, and as to the general management, and urge the teacher to promote their wider use. An inspection of the librarian's methods will tell him how extensively the books are loaned and read.

The best time for visiting schools, will be found to be shortly after the term has opened. Two or three weeks may be allowed in which to get the school organized and show the effect of the teacher's plans. A visit then will enable the inspector to judge of the value of the work that is being done, to nip in the bud any evil practices or errors which are likely to mar the usefulness of the school, and to offer any suggestions needful for its improvement. A visit made near the opening of the term is of twice the utility of any made at the middle or latter end. It would be better still if a second visit could be made near the close to observe the progress made, especially if both teacher and pupils were looking forward to such second visit from the time of the first.

The inspector will do well to secure, if possible, the presence and cooperation of the District Board in his visits. Not only will the district officers be brought, by this means, into a closer acquaintance and clearer knowledge of their school, but the inspector will secure the opportunity of counselling with them as to the improvements desirable to be made, and to urge upon them the wants and necessities of the school.

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